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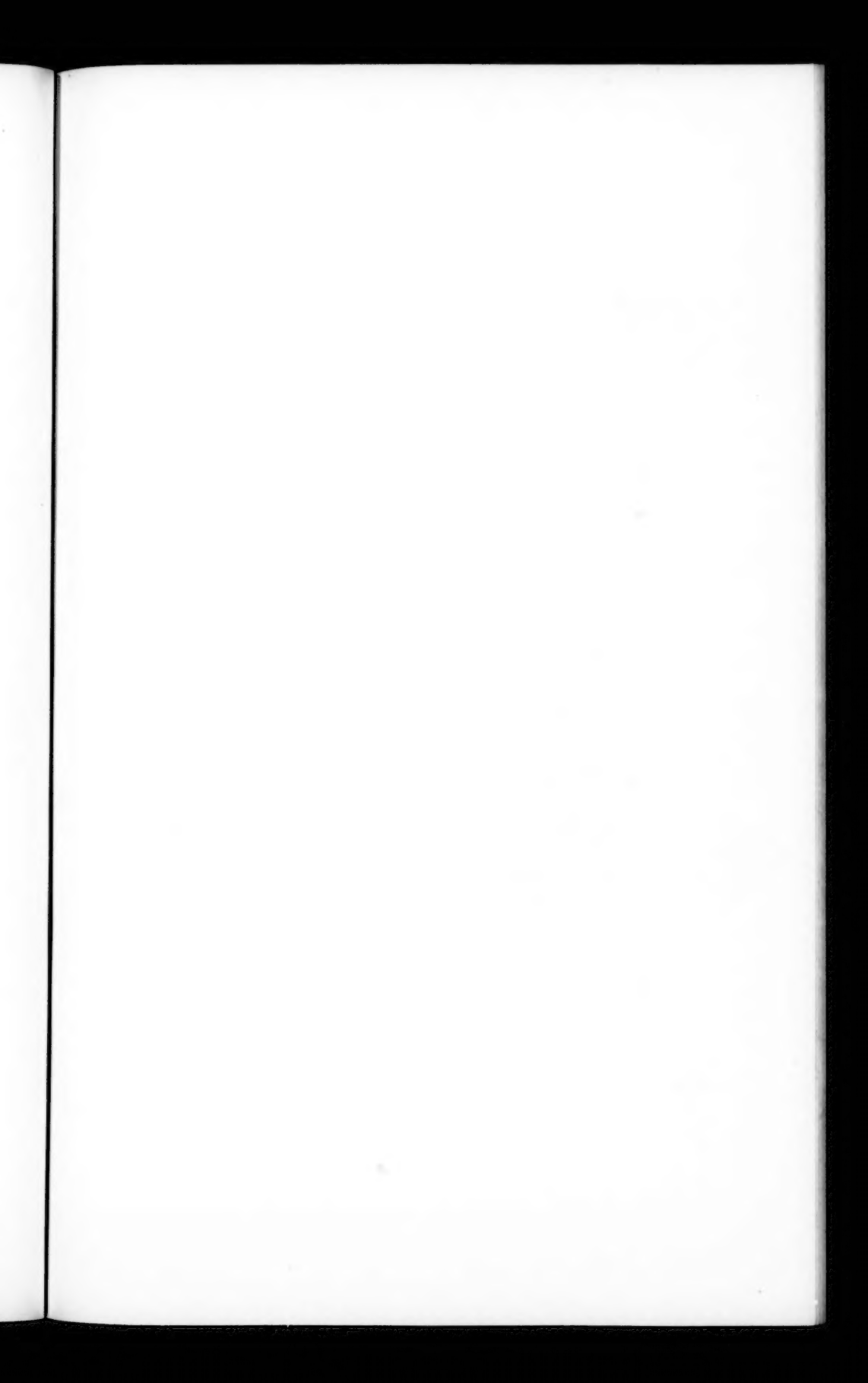
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EDWARD C. KIRKLAND
Bowdoin College
President of the Association, 1946 and 1947

THE PRESIDENCY OF THE ASSOCIATION

The American Association of University Professors was founded to develop the professional concept of teaching and research in institutions of higher education. This purpose is evident in the statement of objectives formulated at the organizational meeting of the Association in January, 1915:

To bring about more effective cooperation among the members of the profession in the discharge of their special responsibilities as custodians of the interests of higher education and research in America; to promote a more general and methodical discussion of problems relating to education in institutions of higher learning; to create means for the authoritative expression of the public opinion of the body of college and university teachers; to make collective action possible, and in general to maintain and advance the ideals and standards of the profession.

The attainment of these objectives depends in large part upon the character and the ability of the men and women elected to positions of responsibility in carrying on the work of the Association. Foremost among these positions is that of the Association's presidency. In this office the Association has been served by a succession of able members of the profession. Their understanding of and their devotion to the philosophy and principles of the Association, and their ability to interpret these to the profession and to the public, have contributed greatly toward the development of a responsible academic profession and the development of higher education as a whole.

The President of the Association for the years 1946 and 1947 is Dr. Edward C. Kirkland, whose photograph accompanies this statement. Dr. Kirkland is Professor of History on the Faculty of Bowdoin College, a position he has held since 1931. Prior to his appointment to this position, Professor Kirkland had served as an instructor at Dartmouth College and at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and as an assistant professor and associate professor at Brown University.

Professor Kirkland has been a member of the American Asso-

ciation of University Professors since 1930. He has served the Association as a member of the Council, 1936-1938; as a member of the Committee on Organization and Policy, 1938-1941; and as Chairman of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure, 1942-1945. He is best known to the membership through his work as Chairman of Committee A. His Annual Reports for this Committee are notable contributions toward an understanding of the principles of intellectual freedom in colleges and universities and of the problems that must be dealt with in achieving and maintaining this freedom. They are, also, notable contributions toward an understanding of the rôle of faculties in our institutions of higher education in the development of a responsible profession.

Professor Kirkland's acceptance of the responsibilities of the presidency of the Association augurs well for the future of the Association.

RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

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¹ Listed in the order of their service to the Association. The institutional connections listed are as of the time of election to office.

LITERATURE AND GENERAL EDUCATION

By WARREN TAYLOR

Oberlin College

Last year one of our poets, Allen Tate, embittered by war and by the incivility and the indignity of our time, envisioned the infantilism of the man of learning and his academic ideals in these lines:

Scholar, no dog will have your day
For all your capital's run out,
Wry baby in wet disarray—
Scholar, prepare your meagre clout
For the Day of Jubilo.

Under the slip and slide of day
Think, at the end you'll never be
Trapped in a fox-hole of decay
Nor snip nor glide of history
After the Day of Jubilo.

All our jubilant eyes are raised,
Jubilo. Over the barbican
On the great Day pure and dazed,
Empty of heart the empty man
Of the Day of Jubilo.

In these words invective gives way to irony. We do not yet know exactly for what we may rejoice and to what degree; but we do know—as the lines remind us—that scholars may be trapped in a fox-hole of decay, figuratively, and that they may be trapped in the snip and glide of history. We do know that scholars may be, as were so many of them in German universities when Hitler took over, empty of heart—the empty man: the little peppercorn of specialized knowledge, precise; the political will and vision, compassion and the human heart, nonexistent.

War and all of its concomitants have reminded students, scholars, men of learning, that they cannot perch themselves indifferently above the swirls and torrents of social processes that flood

the earth. Either they will help to impound the waters—the work of liberal or general education—or the waters will uproot their perches and submerge them, as they have in the fascist countries of our time.

The world is usually in crisis, of course, but now its crisis is acute. The battle for power and control between the men who would master the world for their own selfish ends and the men who would have it decent, peaceful, and free goes on in an ideological war, with only one weapon now excluded and that one the last to be used: the violence of arms.

The present crisis is a complex of emergent questions. These questions form a vast part of what we may rather flatly and coldly call our experience of life—the future that we prepare for ourselves. The details of each of these questions are suggested by the labels which we use to point to them: Can the world, half-slave and half-free, exist in peace? Are world events to be shaped by the propaganda of inflamed emotions and indoctrination or by the reasoned decisions of informed peoples with a social conscience? Are world events to be truly expressive of the will of peoples everywhere for peace and decency or are they to be expressive of predatory interests which wish to enslave and to exploit? Is the pattern of social processes ahead to be one of an authoritarianism which is accountable to none and which feeds on the false, coercive unity of despotism, of creedal intolerance which bids for dominance in political spheres, racial hatred, poverty, disease, and ignorance? Or is the pattern to be one of democratic enlightenment which conjoins the freedom and the responsibility of the individual, which does not enslave to authoritarian or totalitarian power, but which liberates, which builds societies on intelligence and tolerance for the tolerant, societies which enable their citizens to share both privileges and efforts?

II

Today the world moves on under the domination of democratic, communistic, and fascist frames of control. Is the United States of America to maintain and to enlarge its democratic traditions or is it to capitulate to other traditions and powers or even to align

itself with another ideology to fight to the finish a third? Are both the national and international policies of the United States to be shaped merely by the strength of pressure groups and politicians who use every trick on the list to get votes and their own wishes enacted into law—or are those policies to be suffused with the principles of justice and freedom which have given the nation its strength?

Such questions as these are at the very center of the present crisis. In every issue of every newspaper they are clearly before all who can read. They are before the nation.

Our crisis in kind Melville describes succinctly in Ishmael's majestic question:

Know ye now, Bulkington? Glimpses do ye seem to see of that mortally intolerable truth: that all deep, earnest thinking is but the intrepid effort of the soul to keep the open independence of her sea; while the wildest winds of heaven and earth conspire to cast her on the treacherous, slavish shore? But as in landlessness alone resides highest truth, shoreless, indefinite as God—so better is it to perish in that howling infinite, than be ingloriously dashed upon the lee, even if that were safety?

We, today, I say, have our open independence to keep. About us, certainly, is not only the howling infinite but also the howling finite.

Whether or not the nation will flourish or decline in its promise of democratic life will depend on the ability of its citizens to answer such questions effectively. In this crisis, as in all, the answers depend on the habits of mind of the citizens and their leaders. Whether or not the people of the nation think and, if they do, what they think are questions of the utmost importance.

This point must now be stressed, for, obviously, the explosive bombardments of war have left the minds of many in a stupor. Freedom from combat casts peace, as a value, in sharp focus; but, even so, the preservation of peace looms so staggeringly great that many scurry under the illusory assurance of grandiose abstractions, rationalizations, schematizations, and the minutiae of perfection. Mankind's present problem is not perfection; it is simple decency. Propagandists of all breeds and faiths stand invitingly to allure victims under their outstretched wings. Prom-

ises, abstractions, and ideals, however, are but tools to ends. Promises do not of themselves bring into existence the ends by which they allure takers. The history of human experience—now of sufficient duration to give us all some very real pointers in living—has shown repeatedly that whatever values men maintain and live by are, first and last, their responsibility. As the agent, man is accountable both for his own destructiveness and his own constructiveness. The whole realm of human values—their safety and his own—for he embodies them—are his problem and he cannot flee from that supreme responsibility into the penumbral alleyways of insubstantial promises, fragile ideals, and outlandish hopes. The responsibility exacts both informed words and enlightened actions.

Such words and such deeds are the product of a genuinely liberal education. And today, in a very real way, the answers which the citizens of the nation give to their crucial questions will reflect the value of the kind of education they have seen fit to give themselves. The enemies of democratic societies welcome nothing more than the indifference of schools to democratic values.

III

I suspect that the kind of education which the nation has been getting under the name liberal or general has not been so good as it actually needs and I suspect that, in the half-century of crisis ahead, for its own security if for no other reason, it had better demand a strengthening of liberal education. For, as Henry Adams long ago said,

From cradle to grave this problem of running order through chaos, direction through space, discipline through freedom, unity through multiplicity, has always been, and must always be, the task of education, as it is the moral of religion, philosophy, science, art, politics, and economy.

I am distrustful of much that goes under the name of liberal or general education today because, from its illusions of objectivity and of the omniscience of specialization, it has lost social perspective and a sense of its social usefulness. In higher education today the natural and the social sciences commonly bury their heads

in vast deserts of facts. Facts, more facts, memory work. Here another acutely wise statement of Adams comes to mind: "Nothing in education is so astonishing as the amount of ignorance it accumulates in the form of inert facts." But I do not forget the humanities. Commonly, they bury their heads in vast deserts of the pretty language of ideals and values, as students yawn.

Education, like democracy, is not inert; it is dynamic. And, being dynamic, it shuns the polarity of facts as much as it shuns the polarity of ideals. Being dynamic, it brings concept to bear on actuality and actuality to bear on concepts. It tests event by principle and it tests principle by event. Being dynamic, education is integrative. The education which the United States today has on hand is, however, primarily that of fragmentation, specialization; but that which it most needs and which it will have to get to have a citizenry capable of seeing and solving its problems is integrative. The reports from Harvard, Princeton, and Yale testify to that need. General education too frequently has become merely an occasion for a favored few, comparatively, to luxuriate in a mild exposure to facts. Crisis, however, requires that education deliver forth for its citizens and their leaders the values of inquiring, critical, and creative intelligences, capable of comparing and evaluating the ends, the consequences, of social processes and also capable of creating means by which the chosen ends may be reached. Societies flourish only when they solve their problems effectively. For such solutions they must look to intelligence, not to voo-doo.

In its preoccupations with the mechanism of nature, with drilling students in the memorization of past, inert facts, in its false sense of exemption from the necessity of believing something, of having convictions, general education has flown blind and soared high. It thought its feet were on the ground, but they have really been in the air. To be as useful to society as it can, liberal, general education will have again to pull them down to earth, where they belong. For the questions of general education are man's first questions: his nature, his life, his course in earth's history. To be of most value, general education must illumine man's prospects for a full life for both himself and his neighbors. It must help men chart their ways toward a full life by use of their intellectual, aesthetic, and moral nature. Education must flee

from polarities. It must reveal the interdependence of knowledge, men, and events. Education must join an awareness of human motives and their embodiment in events with a discrimination of values, ends sought, and the exercise of a creativeness directed toward their realization. Education must display to its students the world, man, and human history, the ideal and the actual, the goal provisioned and the goal attained, and it must ask, of those who see them, "What now?"

The direction of world events the educated must gauge by their own commitment to a frame of value. Education that is not indoctrination, pure and simple, is the liberation of an individual's critical and creative powers and hence, since democracy depends on those powers, liberal education thrives best in a democratic, and not a totalitarian, frame of values. In this nation our ethos is that of a free people and the matrix of differentiation in values and points of view is neither racial nor creedal. To suppose, or to urge that it is, is merely to screen from us our real problems. The matrix for differentiation in values and points of view, the test which all proposals and remedies to cure our ills must meet is whether or not they are, in their principles and their implementation, anti-democratic or democratic.

Students who are getting an education never exist outside of social frames and the dominant social frame in which general education in the United States exists is democratic. As general education compares and evaluates for its students the kinds of lives men live and the kinds of societies they create—as it compares and evaluates the motives, the events, and the consequences of motives and events in human history—its center of reference will be a democratic one. That fact it should welcome. Nothing in the history of human experience discredits the American ideal of the liberation of the human mind and spirit nor the democratic means of realizing it: freedom of speech, press, and inquiry; equality of opportunity; freedom of conscience and religion; separation of church and state; separation of church and school; the right to vote—"a government of the people, by the people, and for the people." These values have been and remain, as ends and as means, central in our national existence. They are principles that inform demo-

cratic policy. They are what we fight for when dictatorial aggression challenges them, either by propaganda or by arms.

In the present crisis the fascist enemies of democracy, in their propagandistic lines, employ two diametrically opposed methods: they screen their malicious coercive intent behind alluring democratic labels and, at the same time, assuming, as they do, that men are stupid and will not know the difference, excoriate democratic governments as confused, uncertain, moribund. Such enemies of democracy attempt now to create in our nation, as Hitler created in Germany, a sense of futility, spiritual emptiness. Beyond overt propagandists, one of our historians, Carlton Hayes, pictures our nation as being more European than American—that is, with its social and cultural patterns representing a higher degree of an imitative following of European traditions than of indigenous, independent creativeness within our own land and during our own history.¹ Such historical diagnosis, I believe, we must most seriously distrust. As a nation we still, without being the least provincial, pride ourselves in the fact that many of our ways differ conspicuously from those of a war-torn, blood-soaked, old, and often effete Europe.

The propagandistic enemies of democracy and such historians as the one mentioned, whose minds apparently can be more at peace in European traditions than in American, must not be permitted to distort and discredit our national values. Democracy and general education are the closest of correlatives and have produced many of the highest values of the modern world to make our nation unlike a dark and tyrannical Europe of the past—the Europe from which our forefathers, as independently minded men, departed to frame a new sense of liberty and a new sense of justice. Democracy and liberal education can neither exist alone; each requires the other both to survive and to flourish. In our colleges, then, European models are not to be our center of reference: as free men, we have created democratic norms we can live by; and in the training of young men and women, we have the deepest obligation to make the nature of those norms plainly evident. We are still an independent, democratic nation. What Emerson said ninety-nine years ago in *The American Scholar*, we may now repeat:

¹ *American Historical Review*, LI No. 2, January, 1946.

Our day of dependence, our long apprenticeship to the learning of other lands, draws to a close. The millions that around us are rushing into life cannot be fed on the sere remains of foreign harvests.

Emerson saw, as we must see, what ideology we as a free, democratic people must feed on.

The point I wish to make is simply this: when democracy is in crisis, when it is infiltrated through and through with competing propagandists, competing pressure groups, struggling one against the other for power and control, scholars must become citizens as well as scholars and our educational institutions must be bulwarks against all authoritarian and totalitarian attacks on our national sense of freedom and justice to all and bulwarks against all attacks on our faith in the dignity of men and in the power of men to discover for themselves the ways of peaceful and useful lives. In his book, *Freedom Is More Than a Word*, Marshall Field has put the point succinctly. After noting that the tendency for education to be used to produce "docile instruments" is perhaps one of the most fundamental challenges to democracy, he rejects what he terms ritualistic education, or the accumulation of graces and graceful knowledge to meet the requirements of an aristocracy. He also rejects the mechanistic or the production of robots who will work willingly for an authoritarian organization. He subscribes himself, finally, to what he terms a *developmental* education, the nurturing of healthy individuals for democracy, education for democratic responsibility and leadership.

Democracy in time of world crisis requires all the more a general education worthy of the democratic ideals. "Docile instruments" cannot recognize, maintain, and enlarge democratic values; "docile instruments" cannot see through deceptive strategies for control; "docile instruments" are enslaved, exploited men; they are neither democratic nor free.

IV

How, then, must general education undertake anew to aid its students in becoming free, mature citizens, capable of leadership in a free, democratic society? General education has on hand al-

ready the technique of imparting information; it can give its students plenty of facts. To those facts, it must now add ample exercises in interpreting and in judging those facts. From what frame of life did they develop? By what form of inquiry were they disclosed? To what consequences in the lives of individuals and of societies do they point? Should they become the basis of action? The ends of general education must be increased: it must not merely enable the student to know. It must enable him also to think, relate, discriminate, judge.

In the howling finite around us, literature—we may say—is surely a fragile flower.

How with this rage shall beauty hold a plea,
Whose action is no stronger than a flower?
O how shall summer's honey breath hold out
Against the wreckful siege of battering days. . . .?

In the degree to which the study of literature develops within students the habit of mind which enables them to see persons and events in perspective—their motives and the consequences of their actions—and in the degree to which it enables them to judge the relative worth of persons and events—their goals and the methods which they employ to reach them—to that degree, I say, the study of literature contributes most solidly and indispensably to the social usefulness of general education.

Two reasons for the study of literature are widely accepted and frequently repeated. First, it is said, the study of literature helps to develop richly endowed and self-reliant individuals; that is, it enables all who fix their attention on it to attain "the efficacy of rugged individualism on the plane of the spirit." Frozen into an opaque generalization, this reason does not reveal and clarify the problems which it suggests. Second, it is said, by studying literature, readers enlarge their sense of the intellectual and spiritual achievements and aspirations of societies. Such a polarity, with the rugged individual at one extreme and society at the other, seems, however, to be a misleading analysis. It emphasizes separation; it minimizes the dependence of the individual on society and of society on the individual. It blinds the inquirer to the fact that individuals create societies and it leaves out of account both

the stimulus and the influence which societies have on individuals. It shuns judgments. Such a polarity flees from life's center: the patterns of relationships which men establish and live by among themselves. There, in that center, literature, properly understood, resides. The polarity which neglects that point holds men aloof from their most crucial problem: the state of their civilization. It needlessly abstracts literature from life, for it does not make clear that literature is simply the length and shadow of men creating and using events and values in order to live.

In his aloofness from his world, man is often pathetic. He finds it bewilderingly difficult to admit the significance of a fact which century upon century has verified. That fact is: neither he nor his world is static. Both are everywhere subject to change. In his movement through time, man is everywhere beset by events and attitudes which destroy him and all his values when he refuses to control them. His life and his society waste away when he passively lets what will be, be. What man now cherishes as legacies from past societies and what of value he may bequeath to future societies are all born of man's triumph over a challenging, destructive change or a challenging, destructive inertia. The chief instrument of his triumph, the chief means of man's living life fully and well, is not a slavish imitation of an ancient system. Man cannot solve his problems solely by the use of past formulations without modifications occasioned by changed circumstances.

The perform'd America and Europe grow dim, retiring in
shadow behind me,
The unperform'd, more gigantic than ever, advance, advance
upon me.

The chief instrument of man's triumph is a power to re-examine and to recast values, constructively, in the particulars of his experience. The process of discovery and creation is at the center of life and, hence, at the center of all education. The processes of discovery, creation, and re-creation are at the center of literature.

O Nature, and O Soul of Man! how far beyond all utterance
are your linked analogies.

The processes of discovery, creation, and re-creation establish values in man's existence. They prevent his experience from freezing into inert polarities. By the aid of memory, imagination, and reason, man acts to arrest, to control, or to direct change. His actions at best begin with contemplation, the exercise of the mind to conceive purpose or design, to devise what is to be done, to take into account the contingencies to be provided for. Man's actions at best begin with his power to see, to feel, and to know.

V

The study of literature, as a subject in general education, should exercise the creative and the re-creative processes of man, for its substance is born of the writer's concrete and dramatic integration of the motives and consequences of human actions. No matter the problem to be solved, the ultimate value of the solution rests in its effect on human consciousness. By creating and re-creating concretely and dramatically the motivations and consequences of man's actions, the processes of literature most closely parallel the processes of life.

To general education literature contributes four things. First, a sense of the interdependence of men in their living one with another. Literature tells the student, concretely, that reality does not exist in the separateness of concepts, or of the individual and other men, but in the interaction between the two. Literature, in the end, is not analytical, but integrative. It supplies a common core of experience which makes communication possible.

... what I assume you shall assume,
For every atom belonging to me as good belongs to you ...
And whoever walks a furlong without sympathy walks to his
own funeral drest in his shroud. . .

Second, an imaginative and concrete vivification and increase of what he sees, feels, thinks, and does. In enabling him to see what he has not seen, feel what he has not felt, and know what he has not known, literature clarifies his sense of the ends of man's actions, his sense of the capabilities of man which he, during life, may, by his actions, best develop and satisfy.

O! now, for ever
Farewell the tranquil mind; farewell content!
Farewell the plumed troop and the big wars
That make ambition virtue! O, farewell!
Farewell the neighing steed, and the shrill trump,
The spirit-stirring drum, the ear-piercing fife,
The royal banner, and all quality,
Pride, pomp, and circumstance of glorious war!
And, O you mortal engines, whose rude throats
The immortal Jove's dread clamours counterfeit,
Farewell! Othello's occupation's gone!

Third, the study of literature exercises a sense of the creative and re-creative process by which men triumph over destructive change as they move into the future. Literature provides a concrete exemplification of the creative process by which man's actions preserve and enrich life.

What is a man,
If his chief good and market of his time
Be but to sleep and feed? a beast, no more.
Sure he that made us with such large discourse,
Looking before and after, gave us not
That capability and god-like reason
To fust in us unus'd.

Save him from hostile capture,
From sudden tiger's spring at corner;
Protect his house,
His anxious house where days are counted
From thunderbolt protect,
From gradual ruin spreading like a stain;
Converting number from vague to certain,
Bring joy, bring day of his returning,
Lucky with day approaching, with leaning dawn.

To suffer woes which Hope thinks infinite;
To forgive wrongs darker than death or night;
To defy Power, which seems omnipotent;
To love, and bear; to hope till Hope creates
From its own wreck the thing it contemplates;
Neither to change, nor falter, nor repent;
This, like thy glory, Titan, is to be
Good, great, and joyous, beautiful and free;
That is alone Life, Joy, Empire, and Victory!

Finally, by expressing concretely the concept of life as communion—communication—men living together—by revealing its values, which range from tragic defeat to realization of the highest capabilities, and by employing the creative and re-creative processes at the very center of life, literature provides men with perspective for judgment and decision in their actions.

if I turn mine eyes upon myself,
I find myself a traitor with the rest;
For I have given here my soul's consent
To undeck the pompous body of a king;
Made glory base, and sovereignty a slave,
Proud majesty a subject, state a peasant. . .
..... I have no name, no title—
No not that name was given me at the font—
But 'tis usurp'd. Alack the heavy day,
That I have worn so many winters out
And know not now what name to call myself!

From literature, then, general education may derive a concrete sense of the nature of life, its ends and the means of moving toward the realization of them as well as the faculty of decision in living. From literature the student may develop faith in the power of men to maintain and to create a civilization, for literature, properly studied, discloses the shapes of human actions and events as welling from the deep substrata of human consciousness, where reside the motives of such actions and events and where in the end are most felt—their consequences.

In the present world crisis the enemies of democracy, fascist-minded totalitarians, seek to gain control of the world by hammering men into "docile instruments." To further their own variety of authoritarianism, they ruthlessly employ all propagandistic devices and appeals, with the hope that they will be able to immobilize creative democratic processes. By misterming governmental processes deceptively, they attempt also to pervert to their own ends our national hatred of all forms of tyranny over the minds of men. They hope to make us accept and like the tyranny by which they seek to dominate our society. Our would-be dictators further undertake to pervert our national ideals of liberty and justice to all.

In this state of affairs our scholars should not be wry babies in wet disarray. It is the first duty of general education to oppose cancerous and exploitative aggression and malice. General education must oppose its enemies and the enemies of our democratic nation by holding unfailingly in full view our national faith in the dignity of all our citizens, our obligations to respect their rights, and our power, as a free people, to discover for ourselves and to use the norms and values in living which make our lives rich and eminently worth while.

As one subject in general education, literature projects values not in dogma but in the persuasive particularities of fact. It exercises man's consciousness, his habits of mind, in both its lyrical responsiveness and in its dramatic comprehensiveness. Through literature flow motives, events, and their consequences; through literature flow human purposiveness and actions. Those attitudes, events, and values, in their great variety, supply a common core of experience which enables men to communicate with and to understand one another. The study of literature, as an exercise in perception and in judgment, adds both depth and perspective to the training of men and women who must, as informed, independently minded, sympathetic, and judicious citizens, assume the task of maintaining and enlarging our democratic civilization.

ECONOMICS AND LIBERAL EDUCATION

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This paper is devoted to consideration of the rôle of economics in a liberal education, the relation of the subject to other disciplines, and the implications of its place in the liberal arts college for the teaching of the subject. The paper is not intended to deal with the details of curriculum and courses, but to attempt to appraise the subject as a part of a liberal college program, and is, therefore, general rather than specific in emphasis. Economics is one of the larger category of so-called social sciences, but I have limited my treatment here to economics because I know more about my own subject. I hope, however, that what I have to say about the place of economics in liberal education may have a wider application to the place of social sciences in general in the liberal arts college program. My paper has arisen out of consideration of the current extensive and spirited discussions of the reform of college education. In these national and local discussions there is involved a challenge to the devotees of our several disciplines to examine and appraise the values, justification, and place of these subjects in a liberal arts college program. It is incumbent, therefore, upon college teachers to meet this challenge. In such examination of the educational significance of our respective fields there are two advantages to the colleges. The first advantage is that it will throw light upon the problem of shaping the future of our liberal arts college programs. Perhaps equally important, however, is that it will serve to recharge our dynamos as teachers. For if such reappraisals result in reconfirming our faith in the importance of our subjects in the total college program, the process will vitalize our teaching by convincing us of the social significance of our respective jobs.

II

This appraisal of economics, therefore, should be made in the context of liberal education. But what is "liberal education?" Here at the very outset we meet a serious difficulty as to the fundamental frame of reference for the appraisal of our subject. I find in the current discussions not only marked diversity but even confusion in definition on the part of individual writers. Some define liberal education in terms of subjects, some in terms of approach and method, and some in terms of aims and purposes. I have found it amusing to see some of the writers, especially on the humanities' side of the fence, defining liberal education for modern times in the ancient terms of the liberal arts alone—the trivium and quadrivium—and then attempting by clever legerdemain to show that certain subjects, appearing to be parts of these seven arts, are by virtue of that fact possessed of the sole claim to being liberal today. Other subjects which do not fit into these categories are thus *ipso facto* illiberal. Such traditionalism is sterile, based as it is on the fact that, by historical accident and particular conjuncture of events, these arts and the classics too came to be considered as solely liberal in a past age. This diversity and confusion as to the nature of liberal education has led one writer to say, rightly I think, that "the term 'liberal education' is perhaps the most controversial, the least specific, in the whole vocabulary of educational discourse." It is not surprising, therefore, that some writers have adopted another term, "general education," to describe the type of education which they espouse. If, however, we are to continue to use the term "liberal education" and attempt to judge economics in its relation to it, we must set forth the criteria of such an education on the basis of which the appraisal is to be made. Of the three approaches to liberal education—content, method, and function—I adopt the functional. I adhere to the view that the most sensible course is to attempt to define and agree upon the functions and aims of a liberal education, and to assess the rôle of a subject like economics in the light of these aims.

What, then, are the aims of a liberal education? I hold, with certain ancient and modern thinkers, that the larger ends are two:

(1) to make good men, and (2) to make a good society. Stated another way, these two ends are: (1) the self-realization of the individual, and (2) social progress or improvement of society. Society, to be sure, is an aggregation of individuals and the individual is necessarily the unit of education, but education should be concerned not only with the inner development but also with the outer relations of individuals. Individuals have a stake in society since society as well as they themselves may determine their own lives. I agree with W. B. Donham in his *Education for Responsible Living* that, "Surely, high among the aims of education is the training of men to take a significant part directly or indirectly in the purposeful activities of their times."

The social purpose and significance of education is neglected or at any rate underestimated by some of the current writers who seem to be chiefly concerned with its purely individualistic aspects. The inner development and inner contentment of the individual is certainly one and a high aim of education, but it is not enough. I, for one, insist upon the dual purpose, with equal emphasis upon the orientation of education upon both the individual and society. And I am glad to note that the Harvard Committee in its *General Education in a Free Society* also takes this view. Says the Committee:

We must resist the prevalent tendency, or at any rate temptation to interpret the good life purely in terms of atomistic individuals engaged in fulfilling their potentialities. Individualism is often confused with the private and selfish interest. The mandate of this committee is to concern itself with "the objectives of education in a free society." It is important to realize that the ideal of a free society involves a twofold value, the value of freedom and that of society. . . .

So much for the dual purposes of a liberal education. As to the traits of mind or personal intellectual powers which it is the aim of education to develop in order to achieve these ends, they have perhaps been nowhere better stated than by the Harvard Committee:

By characteristics we mean aims so important as to prescribe how general education should be carried out and which abilities should be sought above all others in every part of it. These

abilities, in our opinion, are: to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values.

I think we can all agree that these are the intellectual powers which we wish to be possessed by good men capable of living, as the Committee puts it, "a full and responsible life in society." In my opinion it is in the light of these purposes and aims of liberal education that the place of economics in such an education is to be judged.

III

We may profitably approach the problem, I think, by considering the current claims by devotees of the humanities as to their place in a liberal education. The college world is faced with a battle for the primacy of the humanities and there is, thus, a counter revolution under way against the other disciplines, the natural sciences and the social sciences. I shall be concerned here only with these claims of the humanities *vis à vis* the social sciences, primarily in this instance economics. At the outset I may state that I have no desire to underrate the importance of the humanities and that I am merely interested in their case for primacy. The demand for the primacy of the humanities has been stated perhaps in the most forthright manner by Fred B. Millett in his book, *The Rebirth of Liberal Education*. For this reason it is appropriate that Millett's formulation of the case for the primacy of the humanities be taken for discussion here. His thesis is stated as follows in the preface to his book:

This study is based upon the assumption that liberal education is being or may be reborn wherever the humanities—literature, the arts, philosophy, religion, and history—are restored to the primary position in the college curriculum. The necessity for such a restoration resides in the fact that if the primary objective of liberal education is the analysis and discrimination of values, the humanities constitute the group of disciplines most vital to such analysis and discrimination. They are the disciplines most essential to such a purpose, because they, rather than the natural sciences or the social sciences, are concerned with values that may legitimately be called humane. Every group of disciplines has its particular and peculiar utility and value; the humanities

transcend the other disciplines because of their concern, not with material or physical or social values but with intellectual, esthetic, moral, and spiritual values.

He does not make clear what quantitative degree of primacy he has in mind for the humanities. That, however, is not important in this instance since I am concerned here with the qualitative rather than the quantitative aspects of the relationships of the humanities and the social sciences. For the purposes of this paper I am interested in the considerations which form the basis of the proposed subordination of the social sciences as these bear upon the appraisal of the place of economics in a liberal education. With this purpose in mind, then, let us examine the case for the primacy of the humanities as Professor Millett makes it.

Millet's major premise, which forms his criterion of judgment, that the primary objective of liberal education is the "analysis and dissemination" of values, is debatable but, for the purposes of this discussion, I wish to examine his case on the basis of the validity of that assumption. The discussion of the case will thus proceed on his own grounds. I wish to consider particularly the arguments by which he reasons, on the ground of the assumption, that the humanities must have primacy over the social sciences. He states these arguments as follows:

The social sciences come closest to the humanities on the scale of human values, but, since their concern is primarily with man as a social being and not as an individual, they must take second place at least in a society which has as its goal the development of the potentialities of as many gifted individuals as possible. In the nature of their subject matter, moreover, the social scientists are concerned with the behavior of groups or with norms of behavior rather than with the behavior of highly gifted or extraordinary individuals. The values brought to human existence by the poet or saint will always remain inaccessible to statistical treatment. Furthermore, since the conception of a healthy society or a good society is an ethical conception, the social scientist must depend ultimately for his notion of goodness on his own usually imperfect analysis or will derive his notion of goodness from a philosopher, a professional expert in such an analysis.

I think we may all agree that the humanities are more predominantly concerned with the individual values. There is no argu-

ment here. But of chief interest to a social scientist are the two other arguments in the case: (1) that social values are inferior to individual values and (2) that such social values as are involved in the social sciences must be derived from the philosopher.

I dissent from the view that the "social values," so-called, are inferior to the individual values. It will be noted that, according to Millett, these individual values with which the humanities are concerned are religious, moral, philosophical, and aesthetic. By social values I mean the social ideals, goals, or ends to which our own modern society in America is committed or struggling to appraise as worthy objectives. What are these social values? Some, stated in their largest sense, are democracy, security, economic progress, and peace. I hold that these values which I have called social are as important as individual values, the significance of which I do not question. These social values are of equal importance with the individual values for two reasons: (1) because of their importance *per se* and (2) because even the preservation or realization of the individual values may be dependent upon either the achievement or means of achievement of the social ends. These social ends are in themselves of great importance because they are either part of our heritage or represent the urges of mankind in the present times, at any rate in these United States. It is not within the purview of this paper to defend these social goals, but I think it is incumbent upon those who think them secondary to give very compelling reasons for their position. Why should education place less emphasis on these social ends, if it is assumed that education should be considered in the context of democracy and a free society? Unless our colleges are to be "ivory towers," withdrawn from the great concerns of mankind, the social values must be placed in as important a position as the individual values. Since I am an economist I may refer, in this connection, to one of these ends—economic progress, *i.e.*, improvement of the general economic welfare, or the improvement of the standard of living or level of material comfort of all. Certainly, economic welfare is only one part of total welfare, but nonetheless a legitimate part of it. Until poverty is abolished, the improvement of the level of economic living of all is certainly an important social end. It is true, of course, that other values are at stake in the excessive

quest for material comfort. Unless, however, we are to adopt a purely ascetic view of life, advancement of economic welfare is, under its present status, an important social good, and its realization should be regarded as in the best humane tradition. Interest in the improvement of the economic status of mankind is but a manifestation of humanitarianism. It is, therefore, comforting to an economist to note that a philosopher and staunch defender of the humanities, Professor R. B. Perry, has given his opinion that the "antithesis of humanism to humanitarianism is a false antithesis."

But analysis and discrimination among the social values are important also because they may involve the individual values with which the humanities are concerned. It is important, of course, to observe that the so-called social values are also in effect individual values or rather concerns of the individual. As one philosopher-economist recently put it:

The only end is the human individual—you and I—and everyone else. Individuals are the only living things. Nations "live" only because they are a succession of individuals moulded in, and to, a common ethos. Social welfare means nothing if it is not the welfare of persons. There should be nothing startling in such a philosophy of individualism.¹

In this sense there is no dichotomy between individual and social values. The relationship of the social to individual ends however, to which I wish to invite attention is that the social ends, so-called, may involve the loss or realization of the humane values. For example, the achievement of an improved standard of living and prosperity releases leisure and energy for aesthetic values. Moreover, the improvement of economic status may definitely unearth from the bottom more precious geniuses. Moreover, commercial prosperity, whatever its benefit to general economic welfare, may improve the liberal arts for we have it on the authority of Whitehead, the philosopher, that "commerce and imagination thrive together." Or take the quest for economic security by mankind. Here we face the danger that the means toward such security may involve the loss of individual liberties.

¹ A. B. Wolfe: "Economy and Democracy," *American Economic Review*, March, 1944.

In fact, one of the greatest issues confronting the social sciences today is how the social end of economic security and the individual value of freedom can be harmonized. Certainly social ends are as significant as individual values when the latter are dependent upon the former. Individual values are certainly of great importance, but, because of the relation of social and individual values and the significance of the social values in themselves, both social and individual values are, in my view, *equally* legitimate concerns of liberal education. A central problem, then, for liberal education is the proper balancing and harmonizing of individual and social values.

Economists (and I believe other social scientists) are unfortunately by no means agreed among themselves that they should be concerned with values. In fact, many economists believe and practice the belief that economics should be free of value judgments, and there still is quite a battle between the two schools as to Wertfreiheit. There is, however, a very respectable group of able living economists who adhere to the view that consideration of values and ends is not only a legitimate but necessary concern of economists, and I suspect we may now be witnessing a return to greater emphasis on values in the sense of studying economics in the frame of reference of social ends. At any rate, it is notable that at a recent annual meeting of the American Economic Association a considerable section of the program was given over to the question of the importance of the relation of social values to economics.¹ Moreover, the President of the Economic Association in his Annual Address at that meeting strongly supported the view that social values should not be excluded from economics.² However that may be, it is my own personal view, as I shall further indicate below, that economics cannot and should not escape value judgments or at least consideration of them. Economists, in my opinion, must ask: "What do we want an economic system to do? What is an economic system for and toward what ends should it function?" What I am insisting upon is that economic problems must be considered within the framework of some set of social (and, for that matter, individual) ends. Only in this way can

¹ *American Economic Review Supplement*, March, 1944.

² A. B. Wolfe, *op. cit.*

the subject be meaningful. Otherwise, economists will go on throwing up meaningless piles of facts on the one hand or abstract theories on the other that have no relevance to the issues of our times. Moreover, if the subject is taught in a vacuum, empty of value references, the student will not be trained in this area in discriminating among values and in the making of value judgments in reaching conclusions on policy. An entirely value-free economics would certainly rank below the humanities in any scale of concern with values.

It may be objected that, if values are introduced into the teaching of economics, we will be guilty of indoctrination. If, however, in considering values, the emphasis is placed upon the weighing and choice of values by students themselves, why need indoctrination of values be involved? In considering social values, indeed, students should, in my opinion, be led to re-examine the accepted values, themselves, for the establishing of values should be a continuous process. Moreover, it is true that values can be reasoned about and defended in the light of application and experience. I agree with the Harvard Committee in its conclusion that "value judgments are or can be rational so far as they are informed and disciplined." The fear of indoctrination will not be justified in my opinion, if, in teaching, we see to it that value judgments are thus "informed and disciplined."

What, however, of the contention that the social scientist must take his values from the philosopher as an expert in values? A serious objection to such exclusive reliance on philosophy is that philosophy does not give us enough help with consideration of such values as democracy, security, full employment, peace, and economic welfare. Such a division of labor between economics and philosophy may leave the question of analysis and discrimination of social ends for treatment outside the academic fold, where citizens, statesmen, and journalists must flounder for themselves. Moreover, such a division of labor would but maintain and emphasize the very atomization and specialization of knowledge which we deplore. Furthermore, it ought to be true that the economist who knows more about the economics of social ends should be at least as competent as the philosopher in dealing with

the effects of means and techniques upon the social ends themselves.

If, then, my thesis is correct that social values and individual values are equally important and that economics is concerned with social values, this fact affords a basis for unity and commonness of purpose on the part of economics and of the humanities. I pose the question whether community of interest between these two areas in education cannot be attained on this basis of values. We may be able to agree that as between the social sciences and the humanities the relationship at the level of values, at any rate, is not hierarchical but equalitarian.

IV

What, then, is the rôle of economics in a liberal education with aims and purposes as I have conceived them? Economics is an excellent instrument of intellectual training. The development of the subject over the last 150 years has made of it a fine apparatus of the mind at least in its theoretical formulations. Anyone familiar with the literature of the field must, I think, fairly admit that economics can be a splendid means of training in logic, straight thinking, and sound reasoning. Moreover, economics has amassed valuable and interesting information about economic human behavior, institutions, and operation of the economic system. But, in my opinion, economics does not deserve a place in a liberal arts college program merely as a tool of intellectual training. Other subjects can serve that purpose. Nor is it justified as a mere satisfier of curiosity as to facts. I hold that economics is a purposive subject and that its place in a liberal education should be justified by reference primarily to the second of the dual purposes of such an education—the improvement of society and the training of man with respect to his responsibility to society and the social good. Out of it should come a social consciousness and a proper conception of the general economic welfare. This particular significance of the subject is, I think, shown by the fact that many of its greatest devotees were attracted to its study by a desire for the amelioration of the economic status and happiness of the masses of mankind. I call to witness some of these great figures.

Adam Smith, for example, was concerned with what he called the wealth of nations, or the maximum per capita material welfare of mankind. Alfred Marshall, one of the greatest of modern English economists, was lured away from his first love of philosophy and psychology to study economics because of his zeal for the improvement of the masses and the abolition of poverty. Take also Professor Pigou, a great living English economist, who has said: "It is not wonder, but rather the social enthusiasm which revolts from the sordidness of mean streets and the joylessness of withered lives, that is the beginning of economic science." It is true, of course, that economics is, as I have already intimated, concerned with other social ends than improved material comfort, but I have cited these men to indicate their conception of the significance of the subject which led them to commit their lives to it.

Economics serves, in my opinion, to meet the deficiencies of the humanities and the classics of which, obviously, we should not demand too much. It supplements the humanities by considering what I have called the social values. We cannot train our future citizens in analyzing economic problems and making decisions by emphasizing only the individual values. Moreover, in order that students may better meet their social responsibilities as future citizens, the colleges should train them in making value judgments and policy decisions by confronting them with the types of problems, involving the social good, which they will meet in life. Ideals and principles cannot be taught in a vacuum. It is my contention, therefore, that economics is justified in a program of liberal education as a means toward the good society and of fitting our students for what Donham has so aptly called "responsible living" in society.

V

There was probably never a time when our country had a greater need for liberal education in economics. We are committed to democracy and are attempting to make it work. It is obvious that democracy, if effective, requires the exercise of intelligent and informed choices and judgments on issues by its citizens both as followers and as leaders. Today many of the issues which face

citizens are economic and yet there is remarkable lack of popular understanding of the economic implications of the issues. Someone has said that we are a nation of economic illiterates. Perhaps this is overemphasis, but anyone who troubles to watch the public discussions on the radio, in the editorials, and by many political leaders cannot fail to observe a discomfiting ignorance or neglect of economics. A few illustrations must suffice to show the urgent need for economic education. Take the field of international relations. So far we have made commendable progress in setting up an international organization and the country seems to be well committed to what we may call international political cooperation. But can we say that we have gone so far in understanding the need of international economic cooperation and toward the development of a consistent foreign economic policy? Are we prepared to accept the economic changes requisite for the workability of international economic cooperation? There is danger, as some wisecracker put it, that we cannot see Bretton Woods for Dumbarton Oaks. This is another way of saying that we may put our faith in political relations without realizing the necessity of economic cooperation. After the last war we failed in international relations not only in staying out of the League but in international economic policy as well. This time it is important that we succeed not only in contributing to the working of an international organization, but in solving the problems of international economic cooperation. But do we understand the relations between American and world prosperity? Will we put too much faith in international monetary arrangements or are we willing to increase our imports? Have we seen that monetary measures alone cannot substitute for lack of world trade? Will we by restricting the American market to foreign countries drive such countries again, as in the period between the two world wars, to restrictionism and economic warfare? I am far from confident about popular decisions on such questions and yet proper policy on such matters is highly important for the postwar world. Because of the high stakes involved, therefore, there is great need for citizens educated to think competently about the economic bases of international peace and prosperity.

Take also an example from the domestic field. Many objec-

tive thinkers believe (and I think rightly) that our economic system is in danger from the modern phenomenon of pressure groups and their conflicts. There is apparently inadequate realization of the consequences for the common good or general welfare of conflicting and excessive demands by the respective groups. Moreover, there is all too slight recognition of the fact that excessive claims by all groups tend to be self-defeating even from the point of view of the self-interest of each group. There is thus great need for understanding of the economics of general welfare to moderate the economic strife of the groups.

Or take the matter of fear of technology. Admittedly technological changes may bring disadvantages such as unemployment and mass destruction in war, but, as history has demonstrated, they are also capable of yielding much improvement. In my opinion, the solution of the problem of technological change is not in discouraging or stopping such developments. There is need, rather, for considering how to turn technology to greater economic advancement. The problem of the future use of atomic energy is a case in point. I could go on citing great issues such as that of determining what are the proper agenda and non-agenda of government, to use J. M. Keynes' phrase, or the insistent problem of whether and how to achieve full employment. I have mentioned these problems which are, of course, both economic and political to illustrate my point that citizens in a democracy like ours must face issues involving economic policies and decisions. These great questions are not for the specialist alone but for the general public as well. Our educated citizens should have greater competence as participants in our economic policy-making. The colleges, therefore, by offering liberal training in economics can make a significant contribution to the success of democracy.

VI

What are the implications of these considerations for the teaching of economics in a liberal arts college? These implications relate to both content and method of approach. The emphasis in the teaching program should in my opinion follow three definite directions: (1) differentiation of economics from "business," so-

called, as the subject of study; (2) more focus of interest upon the consideration of policy; and (3) expansion of the frame of reference within which economics is to be oriented. Little need be said here as to the first of these emphases. It should be apparent from what I have already said that the kind of economics which should be taught, in the liberal arts college, is to be clearly distinguished from the nature of the courses in business which abound in the colleges of this country. Doubtless Whitehead, the philosopher, is right in defending university schools of business on the ground that their main function is, as he puts it, "to produce men with greater zest for business." Such schools are also justified as a means of bringing about greater competence in the administration and direction of our business enterprises of which there is undoubtedly a lack. But, if my assumptions above are correct, it is not the function of the liberal arts college to train men specifically for business as a vocation. Economics must obviously concern itself with the data, behavior, and institutions of business, but the emphasis should be upon the significance of such activity for the healthy operation of the economic system and for the general welfare. It is high time that the colleges learned to distinguish between the economist and the teacher of "business" who, in the true meaning of the term, may often be not an economist at all.

In the second place, I suggest that the teaching of economics should be more definitely focused upon the study of economic policy. By focus upon policy, I mean that both theory and facts in the field of economics should be made more relevant to the great problems facing the coming generation, in the sense of attempting to help students at the undergraduate level to make decisions as to what to do about the solutions of the problems. I agree with Professor J. M. Clark, distinguished economist of Columbia University, that "economic teaching faces a major re-examination in which problems of teaching method will be overshadowed by the problems of what the coming generation needs to learn. . . . In the postwar generation, economic students may rightly insist that their study be focused around the major problems of their own time and place."¹ He adds, rightly, that "they will also crave,

¹ *American Economic Review Supplement*, March, p. 58.

consciously or unconsciously, some orienting framework of ideas which can give coherence to the whole picture, provided this framework is relevant." This means not less theory but more relevant theory. It means too that our courses may perhaps be better organized to stress policy in the various areas. Instead of courses in the details and descriptions of labor, public finance, money and banking, corporations, etc., the materials in these areas might be shaped around such general topics of policy as the following: fiscal policy, price policy, wage policy, bank credit and money as instruments of economic stability, full employment policy, etc. In this way both theory and fact would gain greater meaningfulness and relevance. Moreover, such an emphasis would give our students more training in solving problems. I have been very much impressed with Donham's indictment of liberal education for failing to prepare students to face the responsibility of problem solving and policy decisions which they have to meet in life. We might well, I think, bear this need of future citizens more in mind in the emphasis of our teaching. Of course, as Donham points out, there are difficulties of uncertainty and inadequate information in attempting to solve problems, especially at the undergraduate level, but since in life students must meet these difficulties they may well face them while in college. Moreover, to have students apply knowledge in the process of their education is sound pedagogy as I understand it. For, as Whitehead says, "Education is the acquisition of the art of utilization of knowledge."

Finally, economics should be taught in a large frame of reference. Economic policy should be considered from the point of view of all the larger social values—democracy, peace, and economic security—as well as from the conventional economic one of best utilization of resources and improved output. All of these ends should be included within the criteria of judgment of solutions. In the problem studies not only must these values be relatively weighed by the students, but the important question of conflicts of ends through means must also not be neglected. For example, to refer again to a matter already mentioned before, is the end of full employment in conflict with efficiency and maximization output? Moreover, is the achievement of full employment compatible with the maintenance of the essentials of democracy?

Full employment and peace are paramount problems, but it is important to attain them without loss of democracy and economic progress. The necessity of balance of or choice among all the important social ends should be continually borne in mind in studying economic problems.

The interrelations of economics and politics, public administration, psychology, and other aspects of social action should also be emphasized. This broader approach is especially important in the study of economic policy. Many questions of economic policy are only partly economic, having also their political and psychological aspects. In fact, the relation between economics and politics is so close at the policy level that we might be justified in restoring to economics its original name, political economy. It is because of these multiple aspects of policy questions that I think the coordination of the social sciences may perhaps prove most feasible and effective in the study of public policy. However that may be, the teachers of economics should, in my opinion, take account, wherever feasible, of the political, psychological and other related elements of the problems which they cover.

Such is my conception of liberal education in economics. If the subject is taught with the emphases indicated, economics, in my opinion, has an important place in the program of a liberal arts college. Moreover, in my view, the humanities and economics so taught have a strong community of interest in serving equally though somewhat differently the larger purposes of liberal education.

NEW OBJECTIVES IN ENGINEERING EDUCATION

By ALLEN H. BLAISDELL

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For some time there has been agitation among engineering educators to provide engineering students with a broader yet more effective education than anything heretofore attempted. The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education has been the focal center from which has been launched a program which, if followed by engineering schools, should liberalize the familiar four-year curriculum and reduce over-specialization. In the case of some institutions, where conditions are favorable, it should lead to the establishment of a five-year course in engineering to permit specialized studies.

For more than half a century engineering education in the United States has been rather well stabilized. More than eighty per cent of the courses given during the customary four-year period of study has been devoted to mathematical and scientific subjects, to laboratory and shop courses, and to specialized engineering courses. English composition, public speaking, one or more foreign languages, United States history, and economics make up the balance of the curriculum. It is only within the last two decades or so that psychology, philosophy, literature, and industrial management have been introduced as suitable electives for the engineering student.

For many years the few outstanding technical institutions were strongly influenced by some of the educational objectives and methods which characterized the German technical universities. And this was not strange in view of the fact that many of the most prominent of the engineering professors in this country, like many of their brother instructors in literature, law, arts, and sciences, completed their graduate work in Germany. The twentieth cen-

tury has witnessed a regression of this foreign leavening and its replacement by aims and practices more in accord with the national needs and temperament.

The intensely pragmatic spirit of our national culture has, of course, been instrumental in giving a decidedly practical and, in many respects, vocational tinge to the formal education of the engineer. In truth, there is good reason to believe that much of the so-called technical education has been in the nature of a training in the uncritical use of certain well-established formulas and laboratory techniques. The primary objective of the great majority of students who attended our engineering schools was purely and simply economic. The objective was narrow, of course, but it seems beyond question of doubt that the kind of learning which satisfied the economic objective also met certain of the national needs. Industry became increasingly satisfied with the type of engineering college graduate who had been coached to develop into a technical draftsman, salesman, shop foreman, superintendent, or an operator of power machinery. Now and then a few ambitious individuals of original minds and aggressive dispositions did filter into managerial positions of responsibility, but such instances were notable for their absence during the decades preceding World War I. It was seldom that any dependence was placed on native talent for specialized engineering jobs of a highly technical nature. Engineers trained in German, Swiss and Swedish schools manned the engineering departments and laboratories of the larger manufacturing companies.

As a rule, the higher industrial executives were recruited from the energetic, keenly alert, and self-educated men who grew up with an industry or else were graduates of our liberal arts colleges, schools of finance, or law schools. Doubtless the latter groups did not know much about the multitude of practical details which underlay the activities of industry, but they did possess a self-assurance, poise and breadth of outlook seldom exhibited by the engineer who was most content when dealing with the tangible, physical entities of his chosen field of work and rather at a loss if perchance he was confronted with personnel and economic problems of a period characterized by a rapid industrial expansion.

Since 1920 these problems have assumed an extreme complexity and the nation has been faced with situations fraught with dangerous potentialities. The vast mechanization of our entire industry has forced engineers as a group to assume an increasing share in the responsibility of developing and running all branches of the nation's activities. The depression years from 1930 onward revealed an astonishing lack of competence and vision among the traditional leaders of our political and economic groups when dealing with the glaring weaknesses of the country's social machinery.

Accordingly, the present world struggle finds the engineer occupying positions of exceptional importance, positions the duties of which often involve far more of human relationships than of skill in the use of calculus, mechanics, physics, and ordinary engineering procedures. The handbook engineer no longer meets the bill. The upshot of the issue now is that the long-time simmering notions of the industrial and educational executives have definitely crystallized into a keen recognition of the fact that industrial tangles, and the economic and social implications which stem from them, require for their unraveling men better educated (and trained) to uncover problem situations combined with ability to reach solutions with a maximum of speed, comprehension, and certainty. There is a glaring need for engineers to possess a much greater knowledge of important historical facts and a more intimate acquaintance with the formalities of logical reasoning. For this reason a premium is not only being placed on thinking ability in its broader aspects but also on mental attitudes which display an unselfish and sympathetic understanding of human relationships.

II

Proponents of revised engineering curricula argue for the utilization of a more uniform, integrated approach to the attainment of educational objectives. The relative importance of educational aims and procedures has been carefully investigated, and the fruit of these studies summarized. There seems to be a general unanimity of opinion concerning the specific kind of knowledge

and training in skills which should be acquired by the engineering student. In fact, a review of the published proposals on changes of engineering curricula reveals an unexpected clarity of thought combined with a well-balanced blend of practicality and idealism. There is inherent in the program the latent promise of the possibility of creating a professional group whose members will realize they are living during a period of the world's history when ideas and symbols of ideas can and do obscure objectives and befog issues. These engineers of the future should possess a plasticity of mind and a sense of moral responsibility not exceeded by any other professional group in the nation.

A closer approach to the educational problem reveals that experienced engineering teachers themselves have recognized for a long time that the graduates from engineering schools have not, on the whole, possessed the knowledge and comprehension of scientific and engineering matters which might be expected or justified by the time and effort spent on these studies. The continued existence of such a state of affairs over a period of many years has been due in no small degree, as suggested above, to the limited extent to which industry has found it really necessary to demand of its engineering staffs a more than superficial knowledge of either technical or general matters. In those cases where this has not been true, it is found that employers of engineering graduates have set up advanced courses in the engineering sciences which were taught by specialists of wide reputation with commendable results. Needless to remark that the young men taking such courses have been of a highly select quality, for they were originally members of much larger groups already exposed to careful sifting in the procedures of employment of personnel.

It is in the light of experiences with courses of this kind that steps have now been taken to analyze and solve the academic problem. At the moment there appears to be little desire to suggest or make any radical changes in course contents of mathematical and scientific subjects. But there is an insistent demand that the material of such courses shall be so arranged and presented that the student will sense the unity of structure which permeates the various subjects, and be impelled to approach his studies with a

positiveness of attitude and intensity of interest which is now the exception rather than the general rule.

The factual knowledge and, to an extent, the trend in instructional methods in the engineering sciences as they are presented to engineering students are revealed by a reading of the standard textbooks (the textbook is an institution with us) now in wide use. One may assume with good reason that the lecture and recitation systems as they function at the present time are the joint product, with the textbook, of evolutionary drift in our engineering pedagogical system. The lecture and recitation system are at their best in such courses; the textbooks are oftentimes written by teachers who have taught in high schools and are familiar with the scholastic preparation of graduates from high schools who proceed on to college. The instructors of the courses in elementary college mathematics, physics, and chemistry may have had, and many do have, teaching experience in preparatory schools, thus making possible what has been accepted as effective teaching in the first and second years of the engineering curriculum. But changes are imminent here, as elsewhere, in the educational picture.

It is no secret that much of the justifiable criticism of technical education, at least in so far as the scientific and engineering aspects are concerned, arises from the ineffectiveness and demoralizing effects of mass instruction. Financial considerations seldom permit the establishment of lecture or recitation groups made up of less than twenty-five students, and it is not at all uncommon for classes to have memberships in excess of fifty students. Teachers of exceptional talent seem able to handle lecture and demonstration groups of this size with apparent success. But one may properly doubt if it is possible for the average student to gain much comprehension of any subject when it is taught under such conditions. Nevertheless, there is slight promise that other than a very few well-favored institutions will be in a position to have instruction carried on with small student groups. Mass education in the future will probably continue to be as much a feature of our higher education as it has always been the most familiar aspect of the nation's public school system. If such is the case, we need to know a great deal more about the psychology of mass instruction for adolescents.

III

The evaluation of the desirable personal characteristics and knowledge of the engineering graduate has grown into a serious problem for the personnel supervisors of industry, although engineering colleges and universities have established employment bureaus which have proved of considerable value in the placement of graduates in jobs. It is not difficult to secure a pretty fair idea of a student's accomplishments while he is working for a degree. Scholastic records, limited as their values are, are open to prospective employers, and faculty members are always at hand to contribute their opinions as to a student's character and ability. And finally there may be obtainable the records of psychological tests which are given to engineering students at the beginning and end of their academic period.

Serious consideration is always given by the visiting representatives of industry to the extent and success of a student's participation in campus activities, for, whether one wishes to acknowledge the fact or not, such activities have been more closely related to off-campus life than many of the artificial, formalized, and unrealistic performances of the lecture room and the laboratory. Overemphasis of individual scholastic efforts and attainments tends to weaken and obscure the fact that a satisfactory professional career rests in no small measure on the ability and desire to work in close collaboration with, and to appreciate the worth of, one's business associates. To quote Boodin, "Education is a social process, and must fit the individual for the teamwork of a common life." Too much of engineering education has been of the kind which did not encourage a healthy and rational cooperative relationship between students in their scholastic work.

Possibly one of the most striking deficiencies of engineering graduates, and to some extent of engineers as a group, is the lack of ability to express themselves with ease and clarity in both oral and written language, even in matters of an engineering nature. Many of the duties of the practicing engineer are confined within the narrow boundaries of a well-defined procedure which is familiar to the members of his particular branch of the profession. Consequently, he is able to communicate his needs, ideas, and experiences

to his associates with fair success. But once place him in the not uncommon position of dealing with situations of a more general nature, and his faltering use of language is quickly evidenced.

Time and again have the employers of engineering graduates called upon colleges and universities to improve the ability of their boys to handle the English language with the moderate facility demanded by the ordinary routine requirements of industry. Experience indicates that there is no easy solution to the problem with engineering curricula organized and presided over by composite scientific and engineering faculties (particularly the latter), possibly none too skilled themselves in the general manipulation of their native tongue.

The first essential, it seems to the writer, for a rational approach to the difficulty is that engineering faculties, as a whole, shall have a genuine appreciation of the great importance of language as an institution for the maintenance and progress of our way of life. There is altogether too much disposition to rely upon the very narrow application of scientific and technical language and not enough on the development of skill and ability in the use of everyday language. Needless to remark that the latter is for the most part the essence of vagueness. And it is this vagueness of meaning which makes it so difficult to unravel the snarls into which so much of our daily thinking leads us. The importance of language is impressively stated by Whitehead when he writes that "apart from language, the retention of thought, the easy recall of thought, the interweaving of thought into higher complexity, the communication of thought, are all gravely limited." In a nut shell, it is imperative that the engineering educator and the practicing engineer shall become increasingly sensitive to the importance of the art of idea communication, which is language in its most generalized aspects.

In recent months we have heard much about engineering analysis as the latest and most novel and vitalizing ingredient in the scholastic bill of fare, which should be presented to the engineering student. Established courses in the subject make liberal use of the fundamentals of mathematics, physics, and mechanics in application to problems of diversified engineering types. Emphasis is placed on the manner of approach to a problem situation and not

on subject matter. When supervised by competent teachers, courses of this kind are of great service in the training of students in the general application of the mathematical sciences to the solution of engineering problems. The writer thinks that possibly the most difficult feature of such courses, from an instructional standpoint, is the difficulty which attends developing a set of problems suitable for a cross-fertilization of ideas in the fields of specialized engineering applications. The ability to devise problems of this kind is probably a rare gift which requires mental qualities approaching those of the genius. But the engineer's worries are not predominantly of a mathematical or even of a scientific nature. Contrary to the notion of many people, engineering practice has been and is likely to continue to be more of an art than of a science. Thinking in terms of mathematical symbols is restricted to the research and in some degree the development engineer. Most engineering problems are of the kind which deal with the correlation and coordination of material data, economics and labor-industry relationships. A form of logical analysis is of course involved in the satisfactory handling of any of these problems, and is customarily referred to as the engineering method. Accordingly, from an educational viewpoint, it is important to consider how it is possible to train students effectively in the use of the basic procedures native to this form of reasoning. The experienced engineer makes every effort to secure an over-all perspective of a problem in hand and its possible ramifications. He endeavors to locate and collect all reliable data which seem to bear on the situation, and then to proceed with what is, in many respects, a form of trial and error treatment which eventuates in the solution of this problem.

IV

The engineering method is the procedure essential to the efficient control of any inquiry likely to confront the engineer in the practice of his profession. It is essentially the application of the principles of inductive logic. Since the method can involve extensive use of mathematical, scientific, and economic principles, plus labor, law, and political principles, it is evident that the traditional design courses of the senior year must become the proper point in the cur-

riculum for bringing to a completion the integrative effects of all the student's previous academic work. It is here, if anywhere, that the engineering student should have his eyes fully opened to the reality and importance of the relationships which exist between the variety of subjects he has studied. However, it should be fully realized by educators that the search for order among a confusing multitude of facts can be, and most times is, a difficult task. And this task is not facilitated by any easily learned set of rules such as those presented in many treatises on formal logic. In fact the established methods of experimental inquiry, and the engineering method in each of these, are neither methods of proof nor methods of discovery, although they are without question of great assistance in reaching a satisfying solution of any problem. Engineering design courses of the kind referred to, like those on Engineering Analysis, will require supervision by teachers possessing both engineering and teaching abilities of a superior order.

The large majority of engineers, in common with other specialists, discover that for many years following graduation from college their undivided attention is absorbed in learning the multitude of important but detailed activities associated with the practice of their profession. Unless the engineer has been fortunate enough as a student in developing some appreciation of the historical background of the cultural environment in which he will live out his span of years, he will suffer from a certain mental opacity. This inability to sense the significant influence of past events or present circumstances can be of serious import to the engineer, for he is about as much at the mercy of the economic propagandist or the political demagogue as the person of untutored mind. Consequently, in those very fields of human activity wherein the engineer should function as an interpreter and stabilizer of events, we find him at his weakest. No educational program for engineers which fails to consider this fact will measure up to requirements of the present or future.

The engineer must come to realize that more of his available time should be devoted to a serious study of literature, history, biography, and philosophy. This may seem a big order in view of the professional literature which piles up, unread, on the desks of so many engineers. Nevertheless, hemmed in by the bounds of his

everyday practical experience, the engineer's mind becomes enmeshed in his immediate needs, and there comes about no development of the imagination sufficient to provide the creative effort demanded by future occasions. Mental growth in all its aspects comes about through assimilation of new ideas, and, since these are the products of exceptional mentality, the engineer must supplement the experience gained by his own personal contacts with his contemporaries with the recorded ideas of the finest minds in history. The practicality of this motive is fully envisioned in the newly established courses in humanistic and social relations which are an established part of new engineering curricula.

As the writer reviews in retrospect the history of engineering education in this country, he comes to the conclusion that too much emphasis has been placed on individual accomplishment. There has been a serious absence of realization that it is the compelling demands of social life which are mostly responsible for human education. Educational institutions have had in mind the activity of the individual, and have failed to comprehend that the latter is only a single element in the experience and activity of entire social groups. This narrowness of outlook was not perceived, and a certain complaisance of spirit was the order of the day. Neither national nor international events were such as to indicate the dangerous weaknesses of such an educational bias, and existing circumstances at present and in the future will not tolerate for long educational practices which fail to benefit society as a whole.

To sum up some rather random statements, it can be said that all educational efforts of a formal description should be based on broader human sympathies. The future indeed seems crowded with bleak possibilities, and it seems the height of human folly to neglect any steps which can be taken to ward off social upheavals, which can disrupt or even destroy our present civilization. Malinowski presents the matter with great clarity when he says "the point is not always clearly realized that the greatest horror of war does not consist in the destruction of human beings, in the waste of wealth, in the toll taken by mutilation, disease, poverty, and disorganization. The greatest loss we are suffering is in fundamental values of loyalty, decency, and all ethical principles. Culture in its finer spiritual aspects cannot survive the shattering lesson of to-

day that might is right; that brutality pays; that ruthlessness, perfidy, and the rule of force are the only moral arguments which matter."

Instructor's Epigram

(With apologies to George W. Muhleman, author of "Must Life End at Sixty-five?" Bulletin, American Association of University Professors, Volume 31, Number 4.)

If life begins at forty
And ends at sixty-five,
Let old professors raise the keen
Who're five and twenty years alive.

But look upon me gently,
Nor lash me with your scorn:
But five and twenty years to live,
I am a babe unborn.

BURKE JOHNSTON

JUDY PICKS A COLLEGE

By MERIBETH E. CAMERON

Milwaukee-Downer College

It is September again and Timkins College has just opened for the fall term. Dr. Levi Shaw, assistant professor of English, is facing his new section of *English 101, English Composition*. Here they are, twenty-five fledglings, just out of high school. It is possible that they can read and write but it is by no means certain, and Dr. Shaw starts forthwith on the task of teaching them their mother tongue by assigning them a theme on "How I Spent My Summer Vacation," to be handed in at the next class meeting. How does it happen that on this fine autumn day these twenty-five students are at Timkins, and not at Hansen College, Black University, or Winfield Institute? If Dr. Shaw is on the college admission committee he may have some idea of how Timkins came to select them (although to tell the truth Timkins doesn't so much select its students as just take them), but even so the chances are that he has only the dimmest notion of how they came to select Timkins. Shaw and his colleagues may work up a proper concern about the state of the curriculum and the requirements for degrees, but they are relatively unconscious of the amazing process by which their students come to them and even of the methods by which Timkins hauls in recruits.

One of the neophytes in Dr. Shaw's English section is Judy Brown. She comes from a prosperous up-state town and was graduated from high school in June. Judy had unusual freedom of choice about where to go to college. She was salutatorian of her class and therefore was not likely to be rejected by the college of her choice. Her parents, with an increased wartime income, could afford to pay her bills at almost any institution of higher learning. Why did Judy choose Timkins? It is worth while to contemplate the process by which Judy and her parents arrived at their decision. When Judy reached the end of her junior year

in high school, the Browns began to talk about colleges. The question that loomed large before them was what type of school Judy should attend. Should it be a coeducational school or a women's college? a state institution or a privately endowed one? the home town college or one away from home? a junior college or a four-year school? a large institution or a small one? There were arguments—good ones—for all brands, but in the end the Browns decided on a small coeducational college away from home, but not too far away.

Up to this point Judy and her parents have proceeded systematically enough. The next step is the solving of a difficult problem, the very existence of which hardly occurs to the Browns. How does one find a *good* college, an institution of real quality, from which Judy may emerge as an educated human being? Granted that Judy wants a small coeducational college, there are good ones, indifferent ones, and bad ones. Can Judy tell the good from the bad? Unfortunately, no. In part that is because she and her parents have many more or less irrelevant ideas in mind in sending Judy to college. All the other girls are going, there's a certain prestige in being a college graduate, Judy may meet a husband, a sorority pin is fine to have, and anyway going to college is a wonderful social experience which Mr. and Mrs. Brown didn't have and want for Judy. In the midst of this welter of motives, the idea of getting a real education is very nearly lost.

Let us see Judy and her parents in action, trying to choose a college. Two small coeducation institutions which are not too far away are Timkins College and Hansen College. Mrs. Brown and Judy sensibly decide to visit Timkins and Hansen. They go to Hansen first and don't like its looks. The buildings are Victorian and the campus is small and crowded. It's not at all like Judy's dream of a college. But Timkins, which the Browns visit next, really looks the part. It has some fine new Tudor Gothic buildings and fresh bright furniture and green lawns. The people whom the Browns meet at Timkins seem so much nicer, too. Judy and her mother have lunch in the college commons and Judy is invited to spend a week end on the campus. The Browns go home feeling very well pleased with Timkins. The package looks very attractive; the stuff inside it must be good. But just as

Judy and her parents are about to make up their minds in favor of Timkins, the field secretary of Hansen calls on them. She's Jenny Jones, Hansen '43, presumably a fair specimen of Hansen's recent output. She has charm and vivacity, and she's full of tales of the delights of college life at Hansen. What does Judy want to be? Judy thinks maybe she wants to teach home economics for a while and then get married. Miss Jones assures her that the home economics department at Hansen is wonderful. All of its graduates get jobs and husbands, too. Is Judy considering another college? Timkins? Oh, yes, that's a nice place too. Miss Jones wouldn't want to say anything against it. Of course, she's prejudiced in favor of Hansen. It's such a fine school and she had such a marvelous four years there. Would Judy be interested in a scholarship? It could be arranged. Miss Jones leaves a stack of promotional literature, an application blank, and a pressing invitation to revisit Hansen. Two days later, Dr. Green of Timkins sees Judy at school. He's a different sort of field representative, a member of the faculty who occasionally visits high schools to talk with prospective students. He talks soberly about courses and faculty members and requirements and liberal education. Judy doesn't like him as well as she did Miss Jones. She tells her family that he didn't seem enthusiastic enough about Timkins. To Judy and her parents Miss Jones and Dr. Green are salesmen (alas, maybe they are!) and the Browns expect to be "sold" a college as they would expect to be sold a car. When you don't know the carburetor from the radiator, the zeal of the salesman makes a considerable difference. Shall it be Hansen or Timkins for Judy? In the end it's Timkins, because Aunt Nellie, who is a Timkins alumna, comes to bat for it with great vigor. Which is really the better college? Judy may think she knows but she doesn't. She's been an easy mark for educational racketeers. If she lands in a fairly good college in the end, it's sheer luck.

Is this process of selection through which the Browns have gone a fit subject for sunny malice or for sympathetic tears? Perhaps for a little of both. Judy has needed a guardian angel, to stand beside her and tell her what to do and what not to do in picking a college. The "don'ts" are fairly obvious and can be easily stated.

1. Don't conduct an intercollegiate contest in architecture and interior decorating under the delusion that you're thereby selecting an institution of learning. Fine buildings, charming furnishings, and beautiful landscaping are not harmful. In fact they may be very pleasant adjuncts to the higher learning. But admirable teaching has gone on in old-fashioned, shabby classrooms, and a lot of academic hot air has bounced back from the walls of impressive Georgian structures. Timkins may be your dream of a college campus, but maybe Timkins spends its money on buildings and not on a faculty—and it's the faculty that counts.

2. Don't be guided solely by filial piety. What if your Aunt Nellie went to Timkins in her time? That doesn't prove that Timkins is your inevitable and proper destination. Perhaps the idea of following in the footsteps of one of your family may appeal to you, but perhaps, on the other hand, you may not want to be always "Nellie Green's niece." Timkins may not be the same as it was in your aunt's day; in fact, if it is, that may be no argument in its favor. Maybe it's better, in which case you're fortunate if family influence is going to decide the issue for you. Maybe it has marked time or even gone to seed.

3. Don't follow your best friend in high school to whatever institution she picks, without trying to make a choice for yourself. Maybe the bond of friendship will be just as strong between you years from now as it is today. However, many girls change a great deal during the years that they're in college, and they form lasting friendships with girls quite different from those who appealed to them in high school.

4. Don't judge a college by one or two local alumnae. Every college turns out some graduates about whom it isn't too wildly enthusiastic, and even a very feeble imitation of a college may produce an alumna who is really an outstanding person. If Miss Green from Hansen College is not popular in your home town, that does not in itself prove that Hansen is a poor place. However, if you know a fair number of alumnae from Timkins and in general they impress you as well-educated, alert women, that is evidence in favor of Timkins. Alumnae are prone to praise the merits of their alma mater. It's very natural to want others to

go through the experience which you have had: people want their friends to go to the same dentist or buy the same kind of washing machine or read the same books—or go to the same college. You must learn to make reasonable discount for this alumnae desire to make converts in making your choice of a college.

5. Be wary of judging a college by its reputation. Some institutions have such prestige that students beat a path to their doors. Sometimes the reputation is amply deserved. In other cases it's a mystery how it was acquired and an even greater mystery how it is maintained. *Who* thinks Hansen is a good college and *why*? There are people, plenty of them, whose taste in colleges, as in other matters, is not particularly good, and you may hear loud praise of an institution which in reality is utterly second-rate. On the other hand, don't pay too much attention to the complaints of Mrs. White, whose daughter Sue went to Timkins for a year, and didn't like it. Maybe Sue flunked out.

6. Don't stake your educational future on what may be a premature vocational choice. Perhaps today the one thing you think you want to be is a home economics teacher. Hansen College may be renowned for its course in home economics. Suppose you go to Hansen on that account and by the end of the first semester decide that you want to major in foreign languages. Either you must tear up stakes and transfer to another college, with considerable waste motion, or remain at Hansen and receive inferior training. The same difficulties apply even more markedly to a narrowly vocational school. An institution with a wide range and generally high standards will give you room to stretch and breathe and change your mind—as you may well do during the first part of your college course.

7. Don't be swept off your feet by the charms of a field representative. The better colleges send out responsible field representatives, sometimes members of the faculty, who give reliable and useful information. But there are cheap and grasping institutions whose representatives are supersalesmen out to bring in registrations by fair means or foul. And after all, the people whom you may see most frequently when you are considering Hansen College—the field secretary and the admissions officer—are apt to

be the ones whom you'll see least often when you go there. They'll be busy bringing in more recruits.

8. Do not sell yourself to the highest bidder by deciding to go to whatever college makes the largest scholarship offer. In the good old days, college scholarships were given to and taken by only those who needed the money, but more and more they have come to be regarded as prizes. Mr. and Mrs. Brown want their Judy to have a scholarship because Jennie Smith has one. Superintendent White wants Judy to get a scholarship because he gains great prestige in the community by being able to read at the high school commencement a long list of scholarship awards which the seniors have won. And Barkus College, none too ethical and in need of students, may pass out scholarships virtually as a means of buying students. If you need a scholarship, apply early to the college to which you wish to go. A good institution will expect you to file formal application, to submit high school records and references, and perhaps to take competitive tests. Beware of the college whose field representative has money in his pocket and offers to hand out a scholarship without knowing much about you or expecting you to make application to the college authorities.

So much for the "don'ts." What about the "do's"? They are far more difficult to state than the "don'ts," and even a well-qualified guardian angel might hesitate before formulating them. Selecting a college is something like selecting a husband or wife. It is a subtle and individual affair, for which it is impossible to draw up rigid instructions. However, there are certain elementary precautions, which Judy and her parents should have observed—and didn't.

1. Be sure that the institution which you select is accredited by the regional accrediting organization and perhaps by such organizations as the Association of American Universities and the American Association of University Women. Accreditation of this sort is like the stamp of the United States government on a piece of meat. It is your insurance that the college meets certain minimum standards in such respects as qualification of faculty members, library facilities, and requirements for the degree. If you go to a college not fully accredited, you may be handicapping yourself. You may find that the better graduate schools will not

admit you, for example. There are various kinds of accrediting bodies and nearly every college, even the shoddiest, can assert that it is accredited by something. Find out by exactly what agencies the school you are considering is accredited and what that endorsement means.

2. Learn to read college catalogues. Some sections of them aren't important. For instance, if you read enough of them you will discover that wherever the college concerned is located, whether in the midst of New York City or miles from anywhere in the great open spaces, that particular environment is the one best designed to promote the intellectual life. Other parts of the catalogue are very important. Read the faculty list with care. How does the faculty of Timkins sound? Are most of the members graduates of Timkins? That isn't too good a sign. Do the faculty members come from a wide variety of reputable institutions and is there a high percentage of holders of the degree of Ph.D.? The Ph.D. is no guarantee of ripe scholarship and brilliant teaching, but the lack of it is even less so. Don't be hypnotized by academic verbiage about the aims of the college, but study carefully what Timkins actually requires for the degree. Does Timkins really seem to have some ideas about how to free you from ignorance and prepare you to be an enlightened and effective human being? Beware of educational novelties, beware of academic stodginess and dry rot: beware of superficiality: beware of vocational narrowness.

3. Visit the colleges in which you are interested, if you can possibly do so. The Chinese are right; one look is worth ten thousand words. But when you go to Hansen or Timkins look at the things that count. Visit some classes in subjects which interest you. Meet some faculty members. Talk with students about what they think they are getting from Hansen.

4. Discuss the question of where to go to college with intelligent people whose opinions you respect—your teachers, friends of your family, your minister, etc. You'll have to know how to weigh and assess this advice, but it may help you greatly. If you check on the accreditation of your prospective alma mater, if you judge carefully the merits of its faculty and its educational program, if

you have a favorable impression of it from visiting the campus and talking with people who know something about colleges and education, you have a fair chance of making a reasonably good choice. Even so you and Timkins or Hansen, whichever it is to be, may not fit well together, for there is a large, unpredictable and uncontrollable element in going to college just as there is in contracting matrimony and in many of the other important experiences of life. But at least you will have done your best to choose an educational institution which is worth attending.

Well, here is Judy Brown enrolled as a freshman at Timkins, having done the things she ought not to have done and left undone the things she ought to have done in making her choice. As a matter of fact, Timkins is a fairly good institution and Judy is lucky. But how about Dr. Levi Shaw and his colleagues at Timkins and all the other faculty members in colleges and universities throughout the country? Is the trial-and-error method by which many young Americans choose their prospective alma maters any concern of theirs? Yes, it is. The Levi Shaws have very definite responsibilities in this—responsibilities which in many institutions they do not assume. First, the faculty of a college must know by what means the college tries to attract students. Is it making a legitimate appeal, stressing real intellectual values and giving an honest idea of what the college has to offer? Or is it practicing sheer opportunism or, worse, promising the customers what they want, regardless of whether they ought to want it or whether the college has it. If the college is appearing before the world as a combination of trade school and club, the faculty should know it and take measures. Unless, of course, the college *is* a combination of trade school and club. Second, college faculty members should constitute themselves honorary field representatives, not of the college by which they are employed, but of the cause of real education. Presumably they know better than any other group in what education consists, why it is important, and by what signs and portents it may be recognized. In other words, they are fairly well qualified to be guardian angels to the Judy Browns. If they indeed have this knowledge, they should try to convey it to the lay public. Levi Shaw cannot sit in his classroom and take what students appear before him without reasoning about how they

happen to be there. He and his kind must be aware of and try to control the forces of attraction and repulsion which operate between college and prospective student if educational institutions are to be worthy of the name.

EDUCATION FOR PEACE

By MARIO A. PEI

Columbia University

The fate of Hiroshima and Nagasaki has brought out in startling relief the monstrous dangers with which humanity is faced unless it speedily finds a road to permanent peace. Since the crash of the atomic bomb and the announcement of atomic power, countless people have risen to warn us of the annihilation with which mankind is threatened unless man's outlook on international relations catches up with potentially all-destructive scientific progress.

The warning is sounded not merely by educational leaders, like President Hutchins of Chicago, who says we must find a way to get along in peace not 500 or 1000 years from now, but now. Our scientists themselves are alarmed, like Franksteins viewing their own creation. Like the rest of their fellow-men, very few of them have hitherto taken an active interest in world affairs. Now they suddenly perceive that human moral progress has not kept pace with the mechanical aspects of scientific progress, with the result that the latter are slowly but surely leading to the undoing of the human race.

Even before the bomb that shook the world, a scientific conference was held at which a well-known consulting engineer charged that there is no contact between the politician and the scientist, and blamed this on the scientist rather than on the politician. The ivory-tower attitude of the medieval scholar, he claimed, had been passed on to the present-day scientist, who was content to make his discovery or invention, and to place it in the hands of industry, the government or the armed forces, and then witness in helpless horror the destructive uses to which it was put.

In a British radio discussion, also held in the pre-atomic era, a famed English philosopher charged that science "gives us the means to carry our desires into practice and pursue our aims, but

plays no part in generating our desires or formulating our aims." Scientists, he continued, take no interest in what society will do with their discoveries; but these discoveries turn more and more to the destruction of civilization when placed in the hands of a society whose only ideals are speed and power. The suggestion was then made that a halt be called on scientific progress until human progress could catch up with it.

Such were the uneasy rumblings that stirred the scientific and philosophical world in the days immediately preceding the fateful splitting of the atom over an enemy city. In the lurid glare of Hiroshima, the desideratum of those days becomes a must, sinisterly reminiscent of the gangster's "or else." There is no middle course. There is no time to wait. Human moral progress *must* catch up, if the world is to survive.

What kind of human moral progress will serve to avoid the misuse of our scientific progress? Obviously, only that form of progress which leads to understanding, tolerance, and friendship among the world's nations, races, and creeds. But understanding, tolerance, and friendship cannot be based on ignorance. They must have a firm foundation of knowledge and solid information. And this foundation must be broad; it cannot rest on the shoulders of a few university graduates, a few scholars, a few "language-and-area" specialists, even a few scientists or a few politicians. It must rest on the shoulders of entire nations, through all their social classes, all their educational levels. Otherwise, we shall forever be faced with the danger of demagogues artfully spreading their campaign of lies concerning other countries, groups, or religions to the point where a populace that may be literate, but is nevertheless ignorant, is willing to be plunged into war. This happened in Germany and Italy. As matters stand today, it can happen again elsewhere. German and Italian scientists and intellectuals knew all along that the propaganda to which their fellow-nationals were being subjected was false. But they were powerless. The demagogues had taken care to start their work among the all-powerful "masses," the ignorant and semi-ignorant of international affairs, the people who didn't travel, didn't read foreign books, didn't know what their prospective enemies really were or said or thought.

Education for war and schooling for hatred were conspicuous fea-

tures of the Nazi educational system. If we want to avoid historical repetitions, garnished with innovations almost too horrible to contemplate, it behooves us to put a peace content into our own education and that of as many of our fellow-nations as we can influence. This peace content must consist primarily of true information about other nations. It cannot be left to the universities, the scholars, the specialists, even the scientists, on the ground that "the bulk of the people are not interested in what happens abroad." The bulk of the people must be interested, if they wish to avoid the recurrence, on an infinitely vaster and more destructive scale, of devastating international conflicts. Present indications are that the bulk of the people are very much interested. It is up to the school systems of the various countries to direct that interest into the right channels. If they don't, propagandists of hatred and intolerance will turn it into the wrong ones.

II

What is the state of our own nation as regards information about other lands? Not too reassuring.

Recently \$200 went begging from day to day and from week to week on a radio quiz program which specializes in calling telephone numbers at random and popping questions at whoever answers. The unanswerable question was: "What is the modern name of the country whose ancient name was Helvetia?" Most European schoolboys would know, but most American adults didn't.

The question was a little academic, perhaps. But what of the 25 silver dollars offered in vain to members of theater audiences for the answers to such questions as: "What is the capital of Poland?"; "Who is the head of the Chinese State?"; "What is the approximate population of the Soviet Union—10 million, 50 million, 200 million, or 500 million?"; "What was the first country to be annexed by Hitler?"; "What is the national language of Brazil?"

As a nation, we are woefully ignorant of world affairs, not merely ancient, but contemporary. Our press is the freest and best informed in the world. Innumerable widely read magazines attempt to enlighten their readers in matters relating to foreign countries. Politically, we have turned away from isolationism and face

squarely in the direction of global cooperation. But our ignorance of the history, geography, economics, institutions, languages, and customs of the rest of the world remains. And the best of intentions can be wrecked on the rock of ignorance.

Not very long ago our schools were blamed for not making the facts of American history stick in the minds of their students. It was pointed out that practically no college student knew who Mark Hanna was, or what the provisions of the Homestead Act were. This may have been unflattering to our national pride; but it does not begin to rival the danger of our not knowing, as a nation, who rules the present destinies of China, what the potential strength of Russia is, or where the cycle of Germany's aggressions began and may begin again. The past holds a mighty fascination; but the present and future have a direct bearing on our lives and those of our children. Not knowing about Calhoun and Clay may be deplorable; but not knowing the basic facts about Japan, the British Empire, India, or the Soviet Union is downright hazardous.

It was only our direct participation in World War II that gave us our present international slant. Previously, the stress in American education had been toward nationalistic isolationism. Subjects with an international content, like geography, modern contemporary history, world economics, foreign languages, were being more and more shelved in favor of bread-and-butter subjects, the "social sciences," and "good citizenship" courses, the content of which was narrowly restricted to domestic affairs. School administrators openly voiced the opinion that it was far, far better for our children to know about garbage disposal and real estate taxation than to become acquainted with a foreign language, the economic setup of Europe, or the basis of international relations. The President of the New York Board of Education came out in favor of more "character-building" courses at the expense of foreign languages; "courses on racial and religious tolerance are what we need," he urged, forgetting that nothing builds up tolerance and understanding as much as an insight into the other fellow's language and thought-processes.

It was in the midst of an education becoming each year more narrowly isolationist that the Pearl Harbor bombshell exploded. Foreign languages had for years been whittled down to a "reading

objective" that has rightly been described as the "Munich of international education." Geography and world history did not fare much better. As for courses on contemporary world affairs, world economics, world peoples, world relations, they were practically unknown, save in a few institutions of higher learning.

Since our entrance into the war, desperate measures have been taken to remedy the flaws in our international education. The army-sponsored language courses, the area studies introduced by numerous colleges, are steps in the right direction. But they leave untouched the core of the issue, which is that to be truly effective for what concerns the bulk of the population, international education must begin at the high school and even the elementary school level.

III

The people seem to be aware of this, even if the school authorities are not. A poll recently conducted by a widely read women's magazine revealed that 78% of those polled were in favor of foreign languages in the high schools, and over 50% favored beginning foreign language studies in elementary school. The New York City program of adult education, which began by polling library readers as to the types of courses they wanted taught, showed over half of them wanting foreign languages. First returns from the G. I. education project in Europe indicate foreign languages in the lead as the G. I.'s choice.

But language is only one side of the picture. Geography, history, economics, political science with a global approach are just as necessary. A completely new orientation in the educational field is in order. The people of the United States must know more about the peoples of other lands—where they are, who they are, how many they are, how they live and work and dress and think, how they are governed or govern themselves. Without widespread information on these subjects, we shall always be subject to the danger of deliberate misinformation, hostile propaganda, and the spirit of war.

Geography is at present taught in our elementary schools. Some high schools go on with it, usually in commercial form. But a universal high school course in geography, with a world economic

and population slant, is a necessity if we are to become internationally minded. As a midwestern university professor aptly puts it: "No one can understand the past, present or future in human affairs unless we study them against an understanding of their geographic background."

It is all very well to learn about the Homestead Act, the political set-up of ancient Greece and Rome, the English kings who came before or after the Restoration, but a one-year course in twentieth century world history is what would give our growing students a real insight into the conditions they are living in today.

Even the mathematical and physical sciences could and should be mobilized for peace. A brief outline of the history of mathematics and science, stressing the contribution made to both by members of the various nations, and the fact that science is international in scope and collaborative in spirit and method would do much to give future scientists the global approach they often lack.

IV

There is no reason why high schools and even elementary schools should not include in their subject matter regular courses on international understanding and cooperation, the content of which would consist largely of essential information about foreign countries.

Such courses should not be of the stereotyped variety. One device that has been found extremely effective in language teaching is that of the "native speaker," who is brought into the classroom to give the students the authentic pronunciation of the language studied. The participation of nationals of various countries to supplement the actual teaching of international courses would have the effect of arousing the students' interest and presenting the inhabitants of foreign lands in the flesh. Just how effective this procedure is was noticed by the writer in connection with his "thirty-language" course. The native speakers of these languages brought in to illustrate pronunciation are not merely language aids. They are real, living human beings, and are accepted by the class-members as such. It is a commonplace to hear students remark: "I didn't know the Chinese could be so charming, or the

Russians so intelligent!" Prejudices against races and nationalities are often broken down when we are brought face to face with the actual living objects of such prejudices.

Something in the present school curriculum may have to be sacrificed in order to bring in the new international content courses. But the sacrifice will not be serious, nor will the teachers have to be too extensively redeployed. The social science teacher can teach social science with an international background. The mathematics and physics and chemistry teacher can turn some of the often fruitless drill or laboratory time to a discussion of the world-wide, cooperative aspects of science. The literature teacher can point to the fact that literature is international in scope. The language teacher must turn to a more practical and conversational, less literary and "cultural" handling of his subject. Courses in general language, illustrating, with native speakers, the main languages of the world, their geographical distribution, their numerical strength, their economic and commercial importance, have been successfully tried in a few major universities. There is no reason why they cannot descend to the high school and even the elementary school level, where they will serve to counteract all sorts of pernicious propaganda, including that of a few language teachers who still persist in presenting the language they are teaching as the only one really worth while.

Last but very far from least, peace education of the type described above must be extended to other nations as well. There is little advantage in having one country well-informed and friendly if another is ignorant and hostile. The Office of International Education, for which provision was lately made by Congress, is designed to foster intellectual and cultural exchanges and, above all, to instill the spirit of peace and good will among nations. This it proposes to do by reaching down into the educational systems of all countries and endowing them with a true international content. If it succeeds, the results will be far-reaching. For what concerns the spirit of peace, the Office of International Education will fulfill in the psychological sphere the same all-important function that the Bretton Woods Agreement is planned to perform in international economics and the United Nations pact in the field of politics.

ATHLETES ARE NOT STUDENTS

ANONYMOUS

I once heard a preacher announce a series of sermons on the story of the prodigal son—one sermon from the point of view of the father, another from the point of view of the son, and a third from the point of view of the calf. I missed the sermons, but I liked the preacher's sense of fairness—his willingness to consider all involved.

The story of the athlete in college has been told from many points of view. To the youth of the nation the college athlete is both hero and ideal. To the college administrator intercollegiate athletics are a means of keeping the college in the public eye and of swelling the list of applications for admission. To the public, college sports are very happily a part of the way things are. But to the college teacher who sees anywhere from six to a dozen athletes walk into his classroom on the first day of a new term—words fail me here; sometimes I think the fatted calf of the story had the better prospect.

That college athletes are not very bright, the athletes themselves will be the first to admit. Often they have been carried along through high school on their athletic prowess, not realizing that they were losing an opportunity to prepare themselves for college. Once enrolled in college, they can only trust blindly in the machinery which keeps them there—and eligible for sports. They cannot learn much. There are exceptions, of course, but high achievement in the classroom is so rare for an athlete that the fact is news for the sports page.

From reading the line-ups and from listening to broadcasts of sports events, the uninformed may suspect that the intelligence level among athletes is low because many players are of foreign extraction—Hungarians, Italians, Poles. The truth is that an athlete named Smith or Jones is likely to be no brighter than one named Bolenciewicz. In fact, the "foreigners" are usually better students than the others. They are more cooperative, more appre-

ciative—they place a higher value on their opportunity. If it were not for their obligation to the sport which pays their way, some of them would have excellent college records.

Lack of brilliance in the classroom is not peculiar to the athlete, but, because of the demands made upon him, he has a smaller chance than the others of being a student in the right sense of the word. During the season of his sport he misses about a third of his classes. When in attendance, he contributes to the work of the classroom little more than his physical presence. Games and practice sessions, especially in football and basketball, bring him so near to exhaustion that study is almost impossible. Again, anyone who has "trained" for participation in a sport knows that even light reading in alert moments is sometimes the hardest of tasks.

How then, the reader asks, does that athlete stay in college? The answer is: He stays. I have known athletes to fail five of the six courses on their schedules. Their names appear on the lists of those sent home to papa—but they don't leave the campus. Technically they have "flunked out," but they remain by being "readmitted" to the college or university. Incidentally, this device gives students valuable lessons in hypocrisy and in the functioning of privilege.

Once readmitted, the athlete prepares for re-examinations in the courses which he has failed, or if his eligibility is not urgent he may repeat some of the courses. Some years ago, with the first big game close at hand, one persistent athlete contended with an equally persistent instructor for a full week in an effort to pass a course by re-examination. During the week he took five tests (the instructor would not give more than one a day); he passed the fifth test late on Friday and joined his squad in time to play on Saturday afternoon. Usually an instructor gives up early, for he receives no extra compensation for his time. He lowers his standards to save himself later work, and gives a passing grade to as many as he dares. He hopes that those who must be failed will repeat their courses with another instructor.

Only a teacher with high courage can resist the pressure to keep athletes eligible. The following incident from a neighboring campus will illustrate:

A star lineman had been failed in June for dishonesty during an

examination. Instead of repeating the course during the summer, he left the campus, trusting that "the powers" would work in his favor when he returned in the fall. They did. The faculty granted him the customary permission to try to establish credit in the course by examination. However, the department concerned refused to give him an examination on the ground that repeating the course was a penalty for dishonesty—a penalty which should not be voided.

Prospects for a championship in the Conference were good, and coaches and alumni were soon at work. They conferred with the President. The President conferred with the department head and argued that, if the athlete had been dishonest, the instructor had been at fault for not watching more closely during the examination, and that, therefore, since the fault was partly the instructor's the athlete should be permitted to take the examination. The department head stood his ground. He was then ordered by the President to give the examination. The department head finally won the argument by saying to the President: "If you will put the order in writing, I'll give the examination—and then resign." The lineman didn't play football that year. According to my informant, he didn't even stay in school. He repeated the course during the following summer and was eligible for the season a year later.

My purpose here is not to expose a condition that needs no exposing; nor to condemn young men for wanting to be athletes more than they want to be students; nor to criticize administrators who yield to pressures. I want simply to ask whether or not something can be done to improve the status of intercollegiate sport, and perhaps to offer some suggestions. Now, when college athletics are disrupted and when commitments are at a minimum, is an appropriate time to ask what concessions a college or a university can reasonably make to intercollegiate sport, and to examine certain concessions that have already been made.

A college or a university must assume that the first interest of every student enrolled is the acquisition of knowledge. It can then introduce a number of activities and amusements which further contribute, in various ways, to the development of character and personality and which help to make going to college a diversified ex-

perience. Participation in these activities is the privilege of those who can meet an established standard of excellence in classroom work. These activities are subject to regulation and control either by the faculty as a whole or by representative committees, and the privilege of participation is denied those who fail to meet or to maintain the standard of excellence.

Not many of our schools can say that this principle is currently applied to intercollegiate sport. Players are recruited from the secondary schools for their skill in a particular sport; are sheltered academically in a School of Physical Education or elsewhere; and are rewarded in ways which violate the spirit, if not the letter, of the code of amateur sport. Teams so made up can get only an increasingly cynical loyalty from the *bona fide* students—although only a few students may resent the fact that the glory of playing for Alma Mater goes to such teams.

Teams should be democratically representative of a college or university as a whole; at least the codes of intercollegiate sport should not discriminate against students who recognize the basic purpose of a college or university. Let us examine for a minute the eligibility section of a typical code—perhaps a better-than-average code:

To become eligible to represent any institution in intercollegiate athletics a student must . . . be doing full work as defined by the regulations of the school or college in which he is enrolled. *Provided, however*, if he is enrolled in a school for coaches, athletic directors, physical education, or any other similar technical courses, he shall not be eligible unless he shall have carried and passed, and be at the time carrying a minimum of 12 hours per semester of regular academic or scholastic work, as distinguished from courses in the theory, art, or practice of athletics or physical education, and in the case of students enrolled in other schools, work in such courses in the theory, art, or practice of athletics or physical education, may not be counted in making up full work as required for eligibility.

Thus, in universities in which the normal load of academic work is 18 hours, courses "in the theory, art, or practice of athletics" may constitute a third of the work required of a student enrolled in a school for coaches or in a school of physical education, but

such courses may *not* be counted as a part of the regular academic load of students enrolled in other divisions of the university.

And there is still a further concession:

Courses dealing solely with applied physiology or anatomy or the historical or administrative phases of physical education may be considered as academic courses for the purposes of this rule.

Under such provisions intercollegiate athletics have become practically the monopoly of a non-academic encrustation.

Clearly, the sports section—as well as some other sections—in the loose-leaf charter of higher education needs to be rewritten. A few schools have protested the present athletic codes by abandoning certain sports; but giving up a sport is not a satisfactory solution—even for schools like Chicago and Johns Hopkins.

Intercollegiate sport is a good thing, and concessions should be made—but only in ways which do not qualify the fundamental integrity of a college or university.

What could be done? If as few as fifty of our large institutions would write a new code and agree to maintain it honestly, others would soon fall into line; many small schools would welcome the leadership of the large universities.

What should a reasonable code provide? If a university is to be a good example of democratic living, the privilege of participation in intercollegiate sport should be open to all students on uniform terms. The curriculums designed in favor of students who cannot do, or are unprepared to do, college work and in favor of some who do not even want to do college work are a subterfuge, and should be abandoned. In place of these misdirected concessions, a logical concession could be made to the amount of work required.

The rule requiring an athlete to “be doing full work as defined by the regulations of the school or college in which he is enrolled” is a ridiculous one. The schedules of students participating in major sports should be from forty to fifty per cent lighter than the schedules of other students. True, the time required to earn a degree would be longer, but a return could be made to the student in an extension of his eligibility to four years instead of the present three. Furthermore, such a sacrifice in the interest of sport would command the respect of an athlete’s fellow students. In the larger

schools, limiting participation to one major sport would be practicable, and would serve to emphasize the primary purpose of a college or university.

Should a student be rewarded for his proficiency in sport? This is a nice question. Certainly there are some nasty names for people who live by, or who get a percentage of, someone else's earnings. I have a warm sympathy for the brawny footballer who, in the off season says: "I'm sorry, Professor X, but I may be late sometimes for my one o'clock class; I have to wash dishes at the fraternity house, and I've gotta get 'em done." The jobs by which athletes make their way are sometimes very real ones.

If all students were obliged to pursue an honest curriculum, and if all those who demonstrated their incapacity for college work were dismissed on equal terms, that is, without partiality, I can see little objection to a genuine award for ability in athletics. Scholarships have been awarded to students on less logical grounds. Under a code national in scope, such awards could be controlled and administered on an equitable basis.

The following is not an argument, but if in the postwar period the *status quo ante* prevails—on some September morning when the back row of my classroom fills up with a dozen or so huskies, I shall say: "I'm sorry, boys and girls, but someone else will meet your class this term. I've just been offered a nice, clean job—digging ditches."

THE PLACE OF RUSSIAN HISTORY IN THE CURRICULUM OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES

By WALTHER KIRCHNER

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At the present time the interest of American students in Russian history is intense, but it is rather superficial. Plainly the result of American-Russian comradeship in arms and presumably envisaging cooperation in peace, it has little to do with history. It is only another manifestation of that element of radicalism which, since the times of Peter Abélard, has characterized all healthy youth in the universities of the world.

Ostensibly this interest centers around an understanding of Russia's development from the principality of Moscow into the "world power" she seems to represent in our time. But essentially it derives from curiosity fastened on the Russian status today, the institutions of the Soviet regime, and a "communistic" society.

To change the existing curriculum for the sake of this transitory trend by adding Russian history to the schedule of those colleges which have so far rejected it, or by increasing the number of courses where it was insufficiently emphasized, would mean nothing but giving in to a fad. The remedy for past failure to give Russian affairs due consideration is not an "overdose" of Russian history; it is the incorporation of Russian history into the body of required history. Accordingly, its importance will not be exaggerated and its position in relation to the whole of history can be clearly defined.

As for the presentation of Russia's history, her development must be shown as differing from that of the rest of Europe, perhaps to the same extent to which China, India, Africa, or for that matter America developed along lines of their own. Only then can Russia be inserted into the historical picture of mankind as a whole, of "one world," now as before.

In perfecting this approach, difficulties are sure to be encoun-

tered, since it asks primarily for a clearer—and more realistic—understanding of Europe and European history by a more enlightened student body. A solid knowledge of the fundamentals must be gained first through increased emphasis on European history with its integral factors of Catholicism, nationalism, liberalism, progressivism, and materialism. Upon thorough understanding of the significance of these factors must be built the story of the impact on Russia of central and western European civilization. The impetus from the West must necessarily be placed in relation to Russia's alternating desire for adoption, rejection, or reformation of western civilization, and thus will be revealed the influence of Europe on Russia as well as the ideological divergencies between the two sections of the continent.¹

On the other hand, a sound knowledge of American history, though of no direct bearing on Russia, should be obligatory, inasmuch as it will help to explain parallel Russian developments, particularly as to opportunities offered by vast, sparsely settled, but cultivable areas, the influence of rigorous climate, the meaning of the eastward movement, frontier society, and the importance of potential material resources, which in turn create regional differences, form society, etc.

A course in the geography of European and Asiatic Russia, with emphasis on the geopolitical implications, should by all means be made obligatory for obvious reasons.

Certainly such extensive preliminary training is not bargained for by enthusiastic students of Russian affairs now, but it will mark the transition from the satisfying of a temporary demand to a permanent addition to university education. Furthermore, it constitutes a sensible approach to the problem of teaching Russian history and Russian concepts.

The present dearth of textbooks in Russian history is still another consideration. There are a number now being produced and it may be hoped that at least a few will face the difficulties squarely and refrain from presenting an "American history of Russia" instead of conveying an inkling of the basic Russian attitude. How

¹ This is a point which may be respectfully added to the statements on European History made by Professor Carlton Hayes in his presidential address to the American Historical Association. Cf. *American Historical Review*, LI, No. 2 (January, 1946) 199-216.

can a student be expected to understand a Zemsky Sobor or a *mir* (meaning "peace" as well as "village community") or the significance of the Church and the monasteries in early modern Russia, unless he is prepared to face an essentially different world? How will he, without an understanding of the special historical heritage of Russia, account for such incidents in history as Tsar Ivan's retirement in 1564, or the address of the Tver nobility in 1858, the ideology of the nihilists, or even the relationship of Russia and Persia (Iran) and the continuity and persistence of Russian trends? Indeed, considering the great number of new instructors untrained in and alien to Russian thought, philosophy, art, and social conditions, yet appointed to teach Russian history, the need for an entirely different kind of textbook than the usual one is peremptory.

After textbooks, the question of language should be examined. A knowledge of Russian would be definitely useful to the student, considering that Russian with its many indefinite terms and untranslatable words will automatically introduce the student to the Russian atmosphere so that a new element is added to his previous scope of thinking. But such knowledge cannot always be demanded, nor is it imperative for gaining a fair understanding of Russia's historical development and present society, provided sufficiently high instruction standards are established. Under no circumstances should Russian history be approached from the high school level and be "brought down" to "common factors"—which are obvious, and which invariably jump the important shadings that add meaning to life. The course must be presented on an entirely different level, not only by professors with special training, but to classes from which, in view of the difficulties of the topic, extra work is to be demanded. Such a program will certainly ask enough of the prospective student to deter those with ephemeral interest, and to offer something real to the serious whose desire for an understanding of Russia and her position is sincere and detached.

Special attention must be paid to graduate studies in Russian history. Few, if any, institutions will be able to work out as comprehensive a plan as that offered by Columbia University under the direction of Professor Jacob Robinson and with the support of the Rockefeller Foundation. Yet a satisfactory program can be worked out in smaller universities. Knowledge of the Russian

language is, of course, compulsory for graduate students, although a thorough knowledge of German will prove of invaluable help because of the many excellent German publications and translations from the Russian. A look into Robert J. Kerner's *Slavic Europe*, despite its age, will show how little work in Russian history has been done in English. Russian history, unlike that of most other countries studied here, offers truly worth-while subjects and infinite scope not only in the field of teaching but also in that of research. There is no difficulty in finding important topics for master's theses, doctoral dissertations, and monographs. There is ample opportunity to deal not only with topics of local interest, as in so many other fields, or relating to men of secondary, if any, importance, but with fundamental developments, institutions, or outstanding men. Biographies of statesmen such as Ordyn Nashchokin, A. J. Ostermann, Michael Speransky, Nicolas Milyutin, etc., discussions of the rise of serfdom and the expansion into the Ukraine, of problems concerning free societies in frontier regions or relationships between Church and state, and many others are definitely needed. Narrower studies, such as the Polish and Swedish partition plans in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, Russia's persistent struggle for Baltic ports, and hundreds of others would provide a wide field for seminar reports while at the same time throwing light on many a contemporary aspect. The material available in this country, particularly in the libraries of Harvard, California, and Stanford Universities and in the Library of Congress, in New York and other places, as well as private collections, offers more than enough for a good start. Owing to purchases from Russian collectors, refugees, and even Soviet authorities after the last revolution, some libraries here have to offer even more than those at Leningrad and other Russian centers.

For a serious student the chances for a satisfying position when his university work is concluded seem good. The obvious difficulties will hold back many who prefer the smooth road, leaving the field to those who meet the challenge of the task. Subsequently, standards will be raised among graduate students and future instructors in Russian history, and Russian history will be established as a permanent addition to the education of Americans,

having an effect far beyond mere happy political connections.

The task thus comprises (1) the enhanced training in European and American history; (2) the writing of a number of lucid, well-sustained textbooks giving due consideration to the Russian philosophy and attitude as a basis for Russian institutions; (3) the increasing of the number of courses for advanced students willing to carry an extra load; (4) the encouragement of graduate research and writing; (5) the training of instructors.

THE AMERICAN ARMY UNIVERSITY AT BIARRITZ, FRANCE

Biarritz American University was one of two University Centers established by the War Department in Europe to provide educational facilities for soldiers awaiting deployment. The other of these Centers was at Shrivenham, England.

Biarritz American University was opened August 10, 1945, and continued until March 8, 1946. During the short life of this unique educational institution, approximately 10,000 students were enrolled for courses in instruction for at least one 8-week term.

The materials that follow indicate the nature and work of the institution: (1) an article by a member of the faculty, "What We Learned at Biarritz" and (2) the commencement address, "Academic Freedom at Biarritz American University" by the institution's dean and academic adviser.

—THE EDITOR

What We Learned at Biarritz

By George P. Schmidt

New Jersey College for Women

Whatever the student may have learned, sitting at his end of the well-known log, Mark Hopkins at the other end must have profited too. For education is a two-way process. This is especially true when it occurs in novel surroundings and under unaccustomed auspices. The one hundred and fifty American college professors who assembled at Biarritz last July to help set up a university for soldiers would probably admit that they took in as much as they handed out, by a kind of intellectual reverse lend-lease. Teaching at Biarritz was a rewarding experience in many ways. This article is concerned with only two of them. During our six months in France we learned something, first, about the army as a sponsor of higher education, and in the second place we participated in a

successful, if limited, experiment in building international good will.

When our first group arrived in the middle of July to look over the bewildering collection of hotels and villas which were to house Biarritz American University, we had already had some experience with army methods. The unexpected phone call from Washington early in June had stirred us to feverish activity. There was first of all the hurdle of a physical examination to overcome, then several series of inoculations to get under our skin and, most difficult of all, a uniform to piece together. The last was necessary, we were told, to simplify the problem of meals and transportation and save us needless embarrassment. So we scurried about to get a uniform. But the time was short, warehouse stocks were nearly depleted, and some of us appeared at the Brooklyn Port of Embarkation looking like well-fed refugees partially gotten up in army clothes. Only we had paid for them. Uniform difficulties pursued us to the end, the result of conflicting orders, or perhaps of the civilian's misinterpretation of orders. Most of the men sent footlockers, some of which were lost in transit and had to be traced from Scotland to Biarritz. The dean's locker turned up just before Christmas, in time to be repacked for the trip home. Another colleague who had brought only his summer uniform and whose locker never did arrive managed to eke out a wardrobe with cast-offs bought from high-point students who were leaving for home. But these were exceptions.

Our first experience with the army transportation system occurred in Le Havre, where we were loaded on open trucks along with all our luggage and whisked through the winding streets of this ruined town to Camp Herbert Tareyton on the heights. We were soon to be on intimate terms with these vehicles, for they constituted a regular bus system in Biarritz connecting all points of the far-flung "campus," and they took us on many a week-end field trip over southern France. The army truckdriver, like his predecessor the Civil War muleskinner, has a picturesque vocabulary; he works endless hours but is always accommodating and generally gets you there on time.

After signing in at four different offices in Paris, en route, filling out endless forms in triplicate, and having the Articles of War waved over us, we were ready to go to work. The Articles of War

caused some misgiving for they forbade us to criticize the President, senators and representatives, and even members of state legislatures. If they were to be literally enforced it might go hard with our political scientists; historians had less to fear for the congressmen they might wish to criticize were mostly dead. As it proved, there was no need for alarm, for the authorities made not the slightest attempt to censor the faculty or to control its classroom utterances in any way. Within budgetary limits the selection and organization of courses, their contents, and the method of presentation were left entirely in the hands of the faculty. B. A. U. was a paradise of academic freedom.

The complete absence of any attempt to stifle opinion was in itself an encouragement to complain about minor irritations. Of these there were many. To convert eighty-two resort hotels and eighty-three villas into classrooms, libraries, laboratories, and billets was no mean job. The library was finally installed in the main gambling room of the municipal casino and books began to trickle in from Marseille, Paris, and the States. Though ordered in June, they were slow in arriving, and throughout the first term work in advanced courses was hampered by a dearth of relevant reading material. In the second term things were better. Excellent laboratory equipment was "liberated" in Germany and carted to Biarritz. The music department staggered the supply officer with a request for twenty-five pianos, which they would need to carry out the program expected of them. They eventually got twenty. This same department was displeased to find that the villa assigned to them had been an officers' brothel during the German occupation, and demanded more respectable quarters. The brothel, which had to be used somehow, was then converted into a billet for faculty, sadistic murals and all; when it was ready biology professors were moved in. The art department took over a magnificent villa which had at one time been Queen Victoria's Biarritz residence.

The university opened as planned. In spite of vexatious delays, conflicting orders, and seemingly insoluble snarls, everything somehow clicked into place on opening day. A well-thought-out and smoothly functioning system of registration got 4000 soldiers settled and enrolled with a minimum of friction, and on Monday

morning, August 20, we stepped into our classrooms and were under way.

II

As the end of the second term drew near it became possible to make a tentative appraisal of the achievements of the army university. By this time 8000 American soldiers, ninety per cent of them enlisted men, had had eight weeks of college. In addition to these G. I.'s there were in the second term fifty British, fifty French, and twenty-five Canadian soldiers, and eighty WACs and army nurses. All of them normally carried three courses, any three they pleased, each meeting five times a week. Teaching this body of men and women was an experience which none of their instructors will easily forget. We soon discovered that with the exception of a few who had come merely for the ride our soldier-students were willing to study. They wanted to learn and understand; some of them displayed an almost pathetic eagerness to recover civilian ways and academic techniques. They expressed their appreciation to the General, even after they had escaped his jurisdiction and he could no longer make or mar their future, as well as to their professors and to everybody who had made the experience possible for them. The faculty in turn were pretty generally agreed that something unusual was going on here. "The most responsive students I have ever had," "The most exciting teaching I have ever done," is the way most of them put it. Highly skeptical in August, they were ready to admit a month later that their doubts had been largely unwarranted, and by December even the most critical were willing to concede that B. A. U. was a success.

Had the army done it? The army had certainly planned it and set it up. A planning group with a large station complement had been at work in Biarritz since early summer, after having rejected several other locations in France as unsuitable. The necessary momentum was provided by the energetic and persistent commanding officer, General Samuel L. McCroskey, whose clear-headed administration changed a blueprint into a going concern. Working under this able and tactful officer in close cooperation with civilian academic chiefs were a number of colonels and majors, some of them specialists and all of them eager to have the experi-

ment turn out well. Too much credit cannot be given to this group of trained intelligent men. But might they not have done even better if they had not had to operate within the framework of military organization? Some of the civilians began to wonder whether the administrative practices of the army, as these came to their attention, were not often more a hindrance than a help.

A good many of these practices did of course come to our attention, for we were obliged to accommodate ourselves to them constantly. There was for example the matter of "channels." One of our earliest discoveries was that to get anything done it was absolutely necessary to move through channels. Every request, every suggestion had to move over link after link of the chain of command until it reached the highest authority, and the decision made there was then sent back over the same route, making all stops. No one questioned that this method, hallowed by tradition and tested by experience, might be the best way to win a war with efficiency and dispatch, but for organizing a university on short notice it was something less than perfect. Things were always happening. Suppose an instructor in art or music wants material which he knows is available in Paris. He gives his request to a secretary, one of the British girls who knows how to draw it up in correct military form and where to send all the copies. His branch head signs the request, so do his section chief and the supply officer, after which it is sent on to Delta Base (Marseille) and finally to Paris. Weeks later an answer comes back, by the same route: "We cannot send this material for educational purposes as requested, for that would violate paragraph x of section y of regulation z. Had you asked for it as recreational material it could have been sent." So the whole performance is repeated with "recreation" substituted for "education," and at last the stuff arrives, too late to be of much use that term. It is small comfort to be told, at such a time, that even the General has to battle his way through the same labyrinth of red tape and that the real reason for the delay is the precipitate pace of demobilization which is throwing everything out of gear. Experiences like this may account for the eighty-five per cent majority with which the faculty voted, in an official questionnaire, that they intended to use nothing they had learned from the army on their return to their jobs back home. Most of the other responses in the

questionnaire were highly complimentary to the university and its management.

Other practices, besides "channels," puzzled us. Why was it necessary, for instance, to carry around twenty copies of our travel orders when it seemed we needed only four or five and were certain to throw the other fifteen in the waste basket at the end of the trip? Why, on the boat going over, did the officers' PX sell Coca Cola while the enlisted men could get only Pepsi Cola at theirs? It didn't matter, probably, but we did not know the answer to that one either. And we sympathized with the head of the chemistry branch who, we were told, had had to report three times within sixteen weeks, and each time on a slightly different form, the number of chairs in each of his classrooms and the exact dimensions of all his laboratories.

Under the spell of these stories we easily fell into the army practice of complaining (the army has a word for it), but offsetting this tendency was a deep if inarticulate satisfaction in having a share in the war, now that the shooting had stopped. We therefore found it equally easy to fall under the beguiling spell of army paternalism. There was so little to worry about. Meals and lodging were furnished. Once we had filled in and signed the proper forms we could be sure of a place to sleep and three meals every day, and the cost was painlessly extracted from our pay envelopes. A stomach-ache or a sore throat sent us to the dispensary where, after waiting our turn and filling out proper forms, we were given a medical examination and supplied with whatever remedies the diagnosis indicated. If the doctor was too busy, the attending sergeant might swab your throat, an experience you did not soon forget. But there were no druggist's prescriptions to pay and no doctor's bills turning up the first of the month. And if you had to go to Paris or wanted to arrange for your return to the States, you had only to put in your request, drawn up in proper form, and in due time everything was arranged. It was all soothing and nerve-quieting: if you could learn to stop kicking against the pricks and to read the daily bulletin you had security. The army carried you on its hands.

III

Lulled by such loving care one was willing to overlook much of the snarl and snafu and to admit the fact, more obvious each day, that the University was on the whole functioning as intended and in some ways doing surprisingly well. It was doing well to the extent to which it managed to free itself from the military strait jacket and to approach civilian ways. To bring this about was the deliberate policy of the commanding general. Having wisely decided that the university's main purpose was to provide a bridge to civil life, he tried to eliminate, so far as possible, the barracks aspect of G. I. existence. Military formations were reduced to a minimum at Biarritz and "chicken" was almost nonexistent. There was no reveille or retreat, no marching to mess or to class. At B. A. U., so faculty and student assemblies were continually reminded, the soldier was to be treated as an individual and not as a serial number. In keeping with this principle, with which the faculty of course wholeheartedly agreed, every student was given complete freedom of choice. He might enroll in any course for which he was qualified; there were no required subjects. Once the choice was made he had to attend classes, but this was an understandable regulation, for so long as these men were in the service of the United States and paid out of the public treasury, the government claimed the right to know how and where they were spending their day. Class discussions were wide open. In a course in recent American history the argument was often under way when the instructor entered the room, and he was politely invited to take over. In this as in other classes enlisted men spoke up as well as officers, and corporals challenged colonels with no catastrophic results. The military contingent of the faculty contained sergeants, corporals, and pfc's, but majors and captains sitting in the classes of the latter made no attempt to "pull their rank;" if the instructor was competent he was respected. Censorship, so far as I know, did not exist. Faculty members had a share in planning the courses in their departments, and they were as free to select their facts and express their views as in the most liberal universities back home.

All this spells just one thing: everybody, from the commanding officer on down, was making a concerted effort to get as far away as

possible from conventional army procedure, in order that the university might flourish. An opinion survey at the end of the first term shed light on student views. Since it was anonymous and in no way affected either the student's grade, or his chance of getting home or his army status in general, its findings can be considered fairly reliable. By common consent the greatest service performed by the university was to help the students recover their interest in, and capacity for, reading and study.* Eighty-four per cent of those who replied were willing to recommend the place highly to their buddies; eighty-six per cent wished to come back for another term. By similar high percentages the students expressed their satisfaction with lectures, discussions, and counseling service. But the highest praise the G. I. had to offer was the informal one which we heard time and again: "This ain't the army."

IV

Besides shedding light on the army as a patron of higher education, the Biarritz experiment provided an object lesson in practical international relations. Not diplomatic relations of government with government, but the relations of groups of people of two nations in daily contact. Granted the experiment was limited in scope and not easily reproduced or expanded, I still think its results are worth examining. By general admission Biarritz was the one spot in France where French-American relations were good. The university had not been running long when it began to be whispered about that the American "invasion" was proving unexpectedly pleasant. The rumor spread and grew in volume, among waiters and bartenders, businessmen and intellectuals, until there was no longer any doubt that the French liked us. They liked us so well that they asked us to stay longer. When it was announced that the university would close at the end of the second term, the city authorities requested the French foreign office to persuade the American government to extend its life. The plea must have been successful; at any rate, the plans were changed and B. A. U. was authorized to continue for a third term.

This happy situation is easily explained. The Americans had not come to Biarritz for military purposes. They were no army of occupation chafing under a monotonous round of daily duties and

anxious to go home. The G. I.'s were students who had come of their own accord; they were reasonably busy doing work which interested them and so they behaved themselves. It was as students and gentlemen—usually—that the French got to know them. Besides, these men were a selected group. All were high school graduates and over half had had one or more years of college. Their army test scores averaged higher than that of applicants for officer candidate schools.

Scattered over a hundred and sixty hotels and villas this American community, student and faculty, military and civilian, was bound to come into close contact with the life of the town. The streets swarmed with G. I.'s at all hours, the stores were full of them. Not food stores and restaurants, for they were out of bounds, but the perfume shops, the book stores, the little bijouteries with their Basque trinkets, the bars and wine shops, all found the patronage of the American soldiers pleasant and profitable. There were unpleasant incidents, but these were less numerous or irritating than at other places in France with large contingents of American troops. In the warm months the beach acted as a universal catalyst. Here natives and foreigners met, very informally. Here, too, impromptu language studies were carried on. From the promenade of the Miramar hotel, a student billet, one could on any sunny afternoon until late October look down on clusters of French girls and American soldiers, jointly reading over some French newspaper and then switching to *Yank* or *Stars and Stripes*. I am not suggesting that this was all they did, but as beach friendships go those of the beach of Biarritz in the summer and early fall of 1945 contained an unusually high percentage of intellectual leaven. Beach meetings led to dates for the cinema and invitations to the girls' homes. More than one young lieutenant, elated over the date he had just arranged with his lovely new friend, found her waiting, sure enough, at the Palais gate at eight, along with her brother and her father and her mother, and thus had a first-rate opportunity to exercise diplomacy in a delicate international situation.

The social life of the professors was equally agreeable. They, too, found their way to the beach. Like their students they came also to know the "little people" of Biarritz: the waiters, the barbers, and the cleaning women, and got from them first-hand knowledge

of the oppressive existence under the Nazi occupation, of heroic resistance and vicious reprisals, and of the desperate current need for food and clothing. Many of the faculty were quartered in private homes where they were hospitably received, often included in family affairs, and urged to bring their friends to visit. Biarritz, always a cosmopolitan town, contains today the accumulation of a quarter century of refugees. We met White Russians, mellowed now and almost reconciled; Spaniards, still chafing under the indignities of the Franco régime; and victims of the Nazis from all over Europe. There were a few English and expatriate Americans who had lasted out the war, some of them in concentration camps. There were professors of the local and the Bayonne lycée, physicians, and businessmen. The breadth of interest and range of experience of these people insured many a stimulating—and multilingual—evening. Fortunately the army made it possible for us to return their hospitality. I recall one informal party in the Christmas season to which we had invited our various friends. We served them wine which the army had liberated from the Germans who had stolen it from the French; coffee brewed over the once-used grounds of our mess (the only way we could get any); fruit cake sent from home, all the cigarettes they could smoke, and sliced chocolate bars from the PX. The evening consisted of an excellent musical program, contributed by some of our guests; carol singing which delighted and perplexed them; and conversation in four languages.

V

More important perhaps for international understanding were the many intellectual exchanges with French scholars and artists. Leaders in science and literature were invited to speak to our classes or to give public lectures, and journalists and political figures discussed the problems of the moment. Thus, M. Edouard Herriot talked to the political science classes, while M. Charles Rist lectured on the financial problems of France. The history club invited lycée instructors and other competent local citizens of varying viewpoints to debate the meaning of the French elections or of recent developments in Spain. There was week-end visiting be-

tween B. A. U. instructors and faculty groups from the universities of Bordeaux and Toulouse.

Similar exchanges in the sciences and the arts included, for example, a visit by the student choir from Bordeaux, which came down for a joint recital with the B. A. U. chorus. Memorable, too, were four organ concerts in the cathedral of Bayonne, two given by André Marchand and two by Marcel Dupré. They were well attended, and our French friends agreed that when six hundred American soldiers were willing to travel twelve miles in open trucks on a stormy night to hear a French artist play Bach it was time to revise their opinion of American culture. Our friends were no more impressed than were some of us when the wife of a local businessman, at whose home we were visiting, showed us, casually and without pretense, some of the books she was reading. They were mostly history and biography, and they were written in three languages.

A fashion show and a beauty contest, held as benefits for French war orphans, climaxed the social program of the University. These performances were given in the Bon Marché which had been converted into a sort of a student union. The crowd, the largest at any function, seemed to be even in the rafters. Marlene Dietrich, who had appeared at the fashion show, introduced a glamorous note. The beauty contest emphasized the international aspect of our program as a WAC lieutenant from Minnesota was chosen as winner and named Miss Atomic while a Spanish girl from Biarritz was runner-up.

Crowds also turned out for athletic events. An elaborate intramural sports program included softball, football, tennis, and basketball, and there was intercollegiate competition in the last two. We usually won the basketball games, the French took most of the tennis matches. I know no better way to convey a sense of the breadth of the B. A. U. extracurricular program and its implications for international good will than to list, at random, the events of a few days as recorded in the daily calendar of the B. A. U. *Banner*, the student newspaper which was published, under the direction of the Department of Journalism, five days a week:

Lecture in Spanish: The Theme of Don Juan.

Recital by the B. A. U. chorus under Mack Evans for the French Red Cross.

Lecture by Mr. Herbert Marshall: Culture in the Soviet Union. Winterset, directed by Guthrie McClintic, opening night.
Lecture, in French: The Physical Geography of Spain, by don Gonzalo de Reparaz, professor of the University of Bordeaux.
The General's Concert in the Municipal Casino.
Lecture, in French: Descartes, by Prof. Moreau of the University of Bordeaux.
Lecture: Europe's Future as seen by a Frenchman, by M. De-Lanux, formerly of the Paris office of the League of Nations.
Lecture: Aspects of Modern Art, by M. Benno Vigny.
History Field Trip to St. Jean Pied de Port and Pau.
Sociology field trip to the Mousterian caves.
Engineering field trip to hydroelectric plants in the Pyrenees.
Journalism field trip to the wine country.

These are samples, not complete lists. Some lectures, and all notices of dances, athletic events, club and committee meetings, have been omitted.

Of particular interest to the people of Biarritz were the plays, four each term, presented by the Theater Arts Department. It was a revelation to them to see the wisecracking, movie-loving, superficial Americans make a serious effort at interpreting Saroyan, Maxwell Anderson, and Shakespeare. A lycée professor of literature told me that the performance of Richard III, with its unusually talented cast directed by Richard Whorf and Captain Baer and its sets and costumes by Mordecai Gorelik, had done more than any other one thing to raise French estimates of American culture. Imponderables such as these, no less than the hotelkeepers' desire for a steady income, explain the action of the city government in asking the university to stay on through the winter. A French journalist, M. Jean-Robert Nivelle, who visited Biarritz to gather information for an article in his magazine, summed it all up in an interview with a *Banner* reporter:

"I came here expecting to find a playground for soldiers, but leave with the impression of a very studious group. I was surprised to see how these boys applied themselves to their studies—and how well the French people have taken to the students. They have caused the city of Biarritz to come up spiritually as it never could have otherwise, and have given us an entirely new view of America."

Academic Freedom at Biarritz American University

By J. G. Umstatt

University of Texas

Students of Biarritz American University, your eagerness to learn, your mental toughness, and your zeal in the quest of truth have been an inspiration to all of us who have taught here. May I, as a member of the faculty and as its representative, express to you our gratitude for your generous response to our efforts. Members of the faculty, may I take this all-too-brief moment to express to you my sincere appreciation of your sustained loyalty and unfailing cooperation. Our experience here together, students and faculty, brightened by the warm hospitality of the cordial citizens of Biarritz, has written an important chapter in the life of each one of us.

You students have come from France, England, and Holland, and from forty-seven states of our Union, and you have met professors from one hundred twenty-five universities and colleges in thirty-eight states and from one in Canada. Your instructors were carefully chosen. Men are here from the faculties of every distinguished university in the United States. The faculty has therefore brought you the traditions and the broad scholarship of American higher education. And they have been skilled teachers, too. But not for these reasons alone do I now say to you that you have just attended a real university. B. A. U. has been a real university because, through the wisdom of our respected and courageous Commandant, General Samuel L. McCroskey, academic freedom has been unrestricted. Each instructor has been limited in his teaching only by his own intellectual integrity. No restriction of academic freedom of any kind whatsoever has been imposed upon any member of the faculty. This wise policy has caused every instructor to give you his very best and, incidentally, it has sharpened each man's sense of intellectual responsibility and thereby added stature to his mental power. The faculty has been free and it has become stronger through the proper use of its academic freedom.

In the past, many universities have been sponsored by kings and by states. Some of them, because they were given freedom, still live as monuments to man's intellectual endeavor and to his spir-

itual yearning for truth. Others ceased to be universities because they became institutions of propaganda for the views of their sponsors. Universities have also been sponsored by religious sects and denominations. Some of them, those that were free, survive as tributes to the mind and spirit of man. But the light of others has waned because they narrowed their vision to the dogma of the sect that fostered them. Social and economic groups have established universities in the past. Like the others that were given freedom, some of these still flourish. But those that became proprietary institutions for the doctrines of their sponsors no longer deserve the name university. The doom of all these universities that have prostituted truth has been sealed by small groups of inferior men whose vision has been clouded by lust for power or privilege. Some of these men, the most infamous of the lot, motivated by the base purpose of greed, have been the paid henchmen of those in power, puppets of those who pull the strings.

But the real universities that flourish under freedom have ever reached upward in their "search for vaster issues" and have forever lifted mankind Godward as they have brought enlightenment to the world. They have been the greatest force for peace because they have fostered tolerance, intellectual cooperation and understanding. History records no wars of intolerance fought by free universities. I sometimes think a free and therefore a real university is the closest thing to God on earth because it seeks to bring His goodness to all human kind, unhampered in its search for truth, above the realm of decree or dogma, untainted by prejudice or greed. And I am deeply gratified to say to you now that I believe Biarritz American University has been a real university in this highest sense.

Tomorrow the villas of Biarritz will not resound to the clomping of G. I. shoes. Their rooms will not be brightened by the lively class discussions of the soldier-student. B. A. U. has closed. But it has now earned immortality as a part of the *idea of a free university*. And that idea will never die.

THE PROFESSOR BEFORE THE BENCH

By M. M. CHAMBERS

American Council on Education

Occasionally a professor's salary, tenure, discharge, resignation, or other incident of his contract or status becomes the subject of litigation reaching the higher courts. At the moment a spate of recent decisions is ready for curbstone review.

Breach of Contract by the Institution

Bertrand Russell contracted with the Barnes Foundation at Philadelphia to deliver weekly lectures for five consecutive years, 1941 to 1945, inclusive, at a salary of \$8,000 a year. The Foundation dispensed with his services December 31, 1942, three years before the expiration of the contract term. In such circumstances the aggrieved party has a choice of legal remedies, one of which is to sue immediately for damages for anticipatory breach of contract; in which event he is *prima facie* entitled to the full amount of the agreed salary, and the burden of proof is on the defendant to show why the damages should be mitigated, and to what extent. Russell elected this remedy.

The Foundation did not allege any failure on the part of Russell to perform according to the face of the written contract. Its only defense was that he had allegedly violated an oral agreement made prior to the signing of the written instrument. This is no defense, because it collides squarely with the well-known "parol evidence rule" to the effect that oral testimony cannot be heard to contradict, vary, or add to the terms of a written instrument which is complete, valid and enforceable on its face. Thus the United States District Court rendered a judgment for Russell on the law of the case, and ordered a trial to determine the amount of damages.¹ An appeal to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals was dismissed because the order appealed from was not a final decision

¹ *Russell v. Barnes Foundation* (U. S. D. C.), 50 F. Supp. 174 (1943).

subject to appellate review.¹ At the trial to determine damages Russell was awarded a judgment for \$20,000, which was \$4,000 less than his agreed salary for the three years. The \$4,000 was adjudged to be a proper mitigation of damages, due to the considerable possibility that a man of Russell's standing would obtain other employment as a teacher before 1946.²

Though the original matter in dispute was of no avail as a defense, it may be noted that by the testimony of Russell he understood himself to be bound for less than his full-time services, and free to do other work for pay concurrently; and he had earned from other sources sums exceeding \$5,000 during the first two years; while by the testimony of Barnes it had been orally understood that Russell was obligated full-time. The written contract was silent on the point, merely stipulating one lecture a week.

Discharge for Cause, Under Tenure Rules

At Louisiana State University an assistant professor of Romance languages who had been with the University some fifteen years was reappointed in June, 1941, for the ensuing academic year and for an indefinite tenure under the regulations adopted by the governing board in January, 1941. On September 9 of that year a complaint was brought to another member of the faculty that the assistant professor had on that date committed acts unbecoming his status. Four days later he appeared before a faculty committee appointed by the President of the University and received a copy of the written charges against him. He admitted the charges and offered no testimony. Two days later the President notified him that the faculty committee had decided that the charges were of such gravity that he should be discharged; and offered him the opportunity of resigning any time prior to September 20. On September 19 he wrote to the President that he would not resign. Two days later the President wrote him that he was discharged. The discharge was ratified by the governing board of the University at a meeting early in November, 1941. Subsequently he sued for reinstatement by *mandamus* and for recovery of his salary for the

¹ *Barnes Foundation v. Russell* (U. S. C. C. A.), 136 Fed. 2d 654 (1943); is affirmed (U. S. C. C. A.), 52 F. Supp. 827 (1944); and certiorari denied, 323 U. S. 771, 65 S. Ct. 122, 89 L. Ed. 67 (1944).

² *Russell v. Barnes Foundation* (U. S. D. C.), 52 F. Supp. 827 (1943).

academic year. Judgment in the trial court was against him, and was affirmed by the Supreme Court of Louisiana. The procedure used in effecting his dismissal was held to have been in accord with the tenure regulations. There was no merit in his contention that the President was without authority to discharge him, subject to later confirmation by the governing board. The Board's proper function is to "review, set aside, or confirm" acts of the President. Normally it meets only four times a year, and obviously the President has authority to manage the institution in the intervals between its meetings.¹

Reinstatement After Abortive Resignation

A professor of history and political science at Montana State University who had been with the institution twenty-six years, and who had permanent status under the tenure rules adopted by the State Board of Education in 1916, was falsely accused of misconduct in 1937 by a young woman who had worked on a WPA historical project under his direction. She, jointly with her brother-in-law, signed an affidavit charging the professor with attempted rape, and placed it in the hands of the President of the University September 27, 1937. Innocent of the charge, but aware of the difficulties involved, the professor discussed the matter with the President and gave him a written resignation dated October 1, 1937. He then employed counsel and sued the brother-in-law for damages for libel and slander, and obtained a judgment in April, 1938. Meantime, on December 12, 1937, his accuser made and signed under oath a complete retraction of her charges, in which she said of her affidavit of accusation: "Said written statement is not true. . . . At the time I signed said written statement I was in poor health and did not fully understand and realize the full import of said statement."

On the date of this retraction the professor sent the President a written withdrawal of his resignation. The state board of education had not taken action on the resignation, but was due to meet at the University on the following day. In the morning of the meeting day the professor personally handed the President another

¹ *State ex rel. Bourgeois v. Board of Supervisors of Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College*, 205 La. 177, 17 So. 2d 25 (1944).

written withdrawal of his resignation. The Board met, and during the forenoon session, apparently not knowing of the withdrawal, accepted the resignation "in a more or less informal way." At the afternoon session, the professor's counsel personally presented to the Board his case for reinstatement, "but nothing came of it."

During the next four years the professor sought reinstatement. The matter was put before the board at eight different meetings. During all that time the vacancy on the faculty continued unfilled. When at length the professor sued for reinstatement by writ of *mandamus*, he won a judgment in the trial court which not only ordered him reinstated, but also included a statement of damages for attorney fees and expenses and his accrued salary and the manner of payment thereof. The Supreme Court of Montana affirmed the order of reinstatement, but modified the judgment to exclude the fiscal statement, on the ground that it had not been a part of the pleadings and under the Montana statute providing for damages in *mandamus* cases the damages are "not those which have arisen out of the prior preclusion or deprivation which the writ itself was invoked in part to redress."

Regarding the resignation and its withdrawal, the court was explicit: "It was as if he (the professor) had delivered the withdrawal to the Board itself. It was the duty of Simmons (the President) to call the attention of the Board to the withdrawal before it assumed to act on the resignation. Acceptance of the resignation was under the circumstances abortive, the resignation not being legally before the Board for action. A tender of resignation is nothing more than an offer to resign," subject to withdrawal at any time until it is accepted by the Board.¹

Salaries in New York City Colleges

A teacher at the College of the City of New York was employed and re-employed annually as a "temporary instructor" successively from 1929 to 1938, when he was appointed an instructor on indefinite tenure. His pay was \$2940 per year from 1932 to 1942, when it was jumped to \$4404. If he had been paid according to the schedule for instructors as set forth in the state Education Law, with annual increments, he would have reached \$4500 by 1940.

¹ *State ex rel. Phillips v. Ford et al.* (Mont.), 151 P. 2d 171 (1944).

He sued the Board of Higher Education for the accumulated difference, and won his case, except that his claims for any years prior to 1935 were barred by the statute of limitations. The Board's defense was that he had accepted the appointments as "temporary instructor" knowing that he would get no increments under them; but the court was unimpressed, saying: "The difficulty with defendant's contention is that there is no position of temporary instructor provided for in the schedules. There is only one kind of instructor mentioned. . . . It is true that plaintiff agreed to appointment as temporary instructor, but as there is no such position and never was, this agreement is without significance."

This decision was subsequently reversed by a three to two vote of the Appellate Division, but eventually affirmed by the Court of Appeals, which summarized the issue as follows: "It appears conclusively . . . that the plaintiff was in 1929 appointed in the scheduled position of Instructor for the academic year beginning September 1, 1929, and that his appointment to the same position was renewed from year to year thereafter until he was given permanent tenure. The provisions of Section 889 of the Education Law . . . that compensation and salaries 'shall not be less than the salaries and salary increments fixed by the schedules and schedule conditions . . . on file in the office of the State Commissioner of Education on the fifth day of March, 1931,' apply to persons holding such positions by successive appointments by single scholastic years without right of permanent tenure, as well as to persons enjoying permanent tenure."¹

Another case involved certain instructors who petitioned for an order to compel the Board of Higher Education to pay their salaries according to the schedule adopted December 15, 1927 (providing for automatic increases except when the instructor's services were unsatisfactory), and in disregard of an amendment adopted by the board June 26, 1935 (making any increases beyond the fifth increment conditional upon possession of the Ph.D. degree). Here again the instructors won their case at all stages, and obtained an affirmance by the highest court of the state, the New

¹ *Dexter v. Board of Higher Education of the City of New York*, 293 N. Y. 39, 55 N. E. 2d 857 (1944); reversing *Same*, 267 App. Div. 189, 45 N. Y. S. 2d 264; and affirming *Same*, 42 N. Y. S. 2d 905 (1944).

York Court of Appeals.¹ The Board contended that it had reserved the right to amend the schedules of 1927; that the plaintiffs had failed to protest for six years; and that the position of instructor was new after 1935. These arguments were of no avail because the schedules of 1927 had been established as minima in the State Education Law prior to 1935.

A third and similar case was brought by an associate librarian who asked for a declaratory judgment to make void the amended schedule of 1935, and also a by-law of July 6, 1939 which purported to abolish increments for associate librarians save in exceptional cases; and an order to pay him the difference between what he had actually received and what he would have received under the schedules of 1927. His recovery for 1940 and 1941 was allowed on the basis of "the right to sue to recover a salary definitely fixed by statute." He also recovered for the earlier years, despite the Board's contention that retroactive recovery could not be had because he had accepted his pay and signed the pay rolls without protest. A city ordinance so provides; but that ordinance applies only to employees of the city, decided the court. "That the Board of Higher Education is an entity separate and distinct from the municipality and is a state agency . . . is now well settled."²

Legal Relations of State Universities to the State

For many years the annual budgets of the University of Illinois have carried an item for the salary of an individual designated "Professor and University Counsel." For several recent years this item had been \$9000, the incumbent of the position being the noted jurist, Sveinbjorn Johnson. After 1941 there was an additional item of \$900 for another individual as part-time assistant counsel, who also received \$2100 as assistant manager of student loans. Early in 1942 the State's Attorney General asserted to the Board of Trustees of the University that he had the legal right to appoint the University Counsel. When the Board rebuffed him, he wrote to Johnson, purporting to "accept his resignation," which

¹ *Adams et al. v. Board of Higher Education of the City of New York*, 288 N. Y. 652, 42 N. E. 2d 745 (1942).

² *Nelson v. Board of Higher Education of the City of New York*, 263 App. Div. 144, 31 N. Y. S. 2d 825 (1941), affirmed without opinion in 288 N. Y. 649, 42 N. E. 2d 744 (1942).

had not been tendered; and at the same time instructed the Auditor of Public Accounts not to issue salary warrants to Johnson and the assistant university counsel. The Board subsequently sued for a writ of *mandamus* to compel the Auditor to issue the warrants. The writ was denied on the seemingly narrow technical ground that no specific authority for payment of "Counsel" appeared in the itemized state appropriation act for the biennium; and the Board of Trustees can make no expenditure except out of a fund duly appropriated for the purpose. Long-standing practice to the contrary cannot affect this conclusion, said the court.

After this extremely strict disposition of the fiscal aspect of the case, the court went on to discuss the broader issue as to where authority to choose the University's legal counsel resides. It held that the University is a public corporation having a legal personality of its own, and is not required to use the Attorney General as its sole legal representative. Consequently it issued a writ to compel the Attorney General to withdraw from a current Cook County case in which he had attempted to substitute himself for Judge Johnson as University Counsel.¹

The markedly more independent status of the University of Idaho was expounded by the Supreme Court of that state in the course of its opinion affirming a judgment in favor of a University nurse who sued for her accrued salary, which had been withheld because she was the niece of the wife of a member of the Board of Regents who had taken office some years after the original appointment of the nurse. The issues, thought the court, were two: (1) Was the state statute forbidding nepotism intended to be applicable to the University? (2) If so, did the legislature have power to make it so applicable? Both were decided in the negative. The four judges participating agreed in the result, but were divided as to the reasoning, with Justice Ailshie and Chief Justice Holden emphasizing that the Board of Regents is a constitutionally independent corporation. "Its rights, immunities, franchises, and endowments were placed definitely and permanently beyond the power of the legislature to disturb, limit, or interfere with them" by the Constitution of 1889, which expressly perpetuated them

¹ *People ex rel. Board of Trustees of University of Illinois v. Barrett*, 382 Ill. 321, 46 N. E. 2d 951 (1943).

as previously set forth in the Territorial charter of the University. In addition to Idaho decisions on the point, the classic cases in Michigan and Minnesota on the constitutional independence of the state universities were cited and quoted.¹ Justices Givens and Dunlap concurred specially, believing the result could have been reached without discussion of the constitutional aspects.

In Ohio the question of the compatibility of a state university professorship with membership in a city council arose. The General Code of Ohio applicable to municipalities stipulates: "Each member of council shall be an elector of the city, [and] shall not hold any other public office or employment, except that of notary public or member of the state militia . . .," and declares that a councilman not complying with these requirements shall forthwith forfeit the office. Two members of the faculty of Kent State University, the registrar and the professor of biology, were duly elected to the council of the city of Kent in November, 1939, and took office January 1, 1940. When a *quo warranto* action was brought to determine the right to these two council seats, the court concluded that the professors could not have qualified as councilmen except by resigning their public employment at the University. Therefore the seats to which they had been elected were properly filled by appointment by the mayor, in accordance with the statute governing the filling of vacancies.²

In Retrospect

In retrospect over this handful of recent cases, it seems that, although the university teaching profession includes among its inevitable hazards the possibility of encounters with false or mistaken accusers or other adversaries who misunderstand the import of local statutes or of the common law, the courts of the land generally hew well to the line of the law and the justice of the case. Their well-reasoned opinions often afford valuable clues to much-needed improvements in legislation and administration.

¹ *Dreps v. Board of Regents of University of Idaho* (Ida.), 139 P. 2d 467 (1943).

² *State ex rel. Tilden v. Harbourt et al.*, 70 Ohio App. 417, 46 N. E. 2d 435 (1940).

THE LIBRARY METHOD COURSE IN THE POSTWAR ERA

By E. HEYSE DUMMER

Elmhurst College

In our postwar era the library will continue to be an important factor in the education of the college and university student whoever he may be, the veteran from the war or the civilian who never shouldered a gun. Statistics show, however, that few students who entered an institution of higher learning in the past possessed the ability to use a library intelligently. The man and woman who will turn from learning warfare to college and university subjects will probably not prove an exception. So then the question arises: What can be done for the postwar generation of college and university students to make them better able to find their way in the realm of printed literature and to discover quickly and independently the bibliographic material they require?

At present most colleges and universities provide instruction in library method during the traditional Freshman Week. Only a few schools use a part of the freshman orientation course for this purpose. The latter arrangement is, of course, superior to the former. The main advantage is one of time, since the number of hours for instruction is increased. However, there are also certain disadvantages, the principal one being that since the freshman orientation course is obligatory even students who are efficient in library method have to take it.

In the past librarians have overlooked the fact that some students possess sufficient bibliographic skill and need no further instruction in library method other than the several hours during Freshman Week. Such students should not be required to sit through a course they have no need for. Librarians must concentrate on the students who lack library knowledge. The Lulu Reed test and similar devices can be used effectively for the purpose of revealing who is deficient in library method. Students who

come to the library for orientation during Freshman Week should be given the test at the end of the brief period of instruction. It can easily be included in the testing program which is usually scheduled for Freshman Week. For students seriously lacking in library knowledge, group instruction should be made available with the beginning of classes after Freshman Week. Attendance should be made obligatory as in any other course. The course should be a required course meeting one hour a week for one semester, and those who fail at the end of the first semester should be required to retake the course in the second semester. This is not an exorbitant requirement if one remembers what is at stake.

Heretofore the library profession has been hesitant about requesting more time to acquaint students with library techniques. Librarians are now in a better position than ever before to insist that a full course in library method be introduced into the curriculum for those who need it.

It should be remembered that the type of course under consideration is to be a required course aiming at the removal of a deficiency in the student's education. The question which suggests itself in such a case is: Should the required course be the only one in the library curriculum? The answer is no. In view of the fact that there will probably be students on all of the larger campuses who are interested in an elective course in library method, provision should be made to accommodate them with instruction. This has been done at the University of Illinois where a special elective course, which runs through one semester meeting twice weekly and is accepted for credit in the undergraduate colleges of the university, has been given since 1898. Obviously the elective course should be a separate course and should not seek to provide for freshmen who failed the Reed test and voluntary takers at the same time. A different approach and emphasis must be used in each of the two courses.

Thus it is to be recommended that in Freshman Week general orientation be given all freshmen in a short introductory course of three to four hours followed by a tour of the library plant, that students in need of more detailed instruction in how to use a library be provided for in a regular semester course meeting once a week, and that an elective course also be scheduled.

What should be taught in the required one-hour semester course in library method? Where students are being acquainted with the library and its tools in Freshman Week, usually large groups are given a series of talks and then split into small sections for more detailed instruction as they are shown through the library. The major stops for instruction on the library tour are made at the card catalogue, the periodical indexes, the general reference books, and in the reserve room. Where one hour a week throughout a semester can be devoted to instruction, the scope obviously must be widened and the instruction intensified. The content of the course can be shaped as follows: First lecture—classification, second and third—card catalogue, fourth to fourteenth—indexes and reference books, fifteenth to seventeenth—bibliography, eighteenth—course examination.

II

Who should teach the course? We must rid ourselves of the idea that this job must be placed in the hands of the English Department. It is a known fact that difficulties emerge from yoking together the English composition course and library instruction. The library course should be a separate course in the curriculum and be taught by the librarian or some competent assistant under his jurisdiction.

It should be assumed that librarians are more familiar with student difficulties in library usage than professors in the classroom. Librarians know better than professorial colleagues how to lead students to the sources without their becoming lost in a bibliothecal labyrinth. It follows that the librarian must have a decisive part in the program of instructing students in library methods.

The problem of who should teach can be most adequately solved if the librarian in charge of the teaching program is guided by the principle that a good librarian is not necessarily a good teacher. It is vastly important to remember that whoever teaches students in the use of the library must know how to teach. The haphazard, unscientific teaching whereof librarians are frequently guilty can only injure the interests of the library. The time has come for every library school to include in its curriculum a course on Meth-

ods of Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries. That such a course should not confine itself to the elementary and secondary schools goes without saying. Just as his colleague on the teaching staff has had a course in teaching methods, the librarian must be given similar help during his period of professional training. The lamentation which is now heard everywhere and is probably justifiable can be expected to cease only when librarians have been properly equipped to teach.

Given the content of the course, how is the librarian or his assistant to teach it? It has been found that the discussion or the laboratory method is well suited to library instruction. Combining laboratory problems with class discussion usually achieves the best results. To give a library course without including problems calling for an application of the library techniques discussed in class is inadvisable. Instruction and practice must go together.

The teaching of the more detailed type of course will be made less burdensome if participants are required to purchase a textbook. An excellent textbook was evolved for the course at the University of Illinois, namely, the 252 page manual by Hutchins, et al., *Guide to the Use of Libraries: a Manual for College and University Students*, 5th edition (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1936). A useful shorter manual of 39 pages has been prepared by Little, *Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries in Colleges and Universities* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Library, 1936). Several other guides of various lengths which can be used for textbook purposes are likewise available.

Regardless of the length or type of the course a library handbook must be placed in every newcomer's hands. The wisdom of this has long been recognized. A well-written handbook explaining the resources and arrangement of the library can be of great value to the future user of a library and even to seasoned patrons. The *Handbook of Charles Deering Library* of Northwestern University may be pointed out as an example of attractive and dignified get-up and well-arranged, intelligible and helpful content.

Ours is the era of the film. It can also be used as a means of instruction in the use of the library. This is an effective method which is applicable both to the short and detailed course. Wherever it is used as an introduction to the facilities of the library, it

will have to be understood, however, that for best results actual contact with the library tools must follow the pictorial demonstration. Unfortunately statistics concerning film usage in teaching library method are as yet meager and incomplete.

III

There remains the question: Should there be examinations in the library course? Experience shows that undergraduates have more respect for a course with several tests, or at least a midyear and final examination. Examinations also facilitate the problem of grading. Assuming that there should be at least a final examination in the library course, what shape should it take? Should it call for an application of what was learned and should this assume substance and form in a short bibliography? Or should the subject matter be tested by a series of objective or other style questions? Might a term paper requiring a bibliography and footnotes be sufficient? Each instructor will probably know what is the best answer in his case. But it might well be borne in mind that a bibliography prepared by the student can usually measure the results of instruction better than a lengthy examination. Where such is the policy, the student will take with him the conviction that his was a practical course and worth the time spent on it.

In the American system of higher education, examinations and credits go hand in hand. Since our educational system has taught students to be credit-minded, students will expect credit also in the library method course. And there probably is no sound reason why they should not if such is their academic birthright. Thus credit should be given to those who must take the required course and obviously to those who take the elective course.

Earle Rugg worded it correctly when he said that teaching freshmen in library usage "can necessarily be but a beginning."¹ His assertion that continuous guidance is necessary if students are to develop the various library skills needed for their subsequent professions carries definite implications. Surely as much should be done for upper-divisional students as for freshmen but the sad fact is that less attention from the bibliothecal side is accorded

¹ Rugg, E. "A Library Centered Program of Teacher Education," *College and Research Libraries*, II (1940), p. 45.

them than their academic juniors. Too many professors expect their majors to gather bibliographical knowledge in their specialized courses as they go along from day to day instead of providing a course in bibliography for them. That such methods are insufficient Peyton Hurt revealed in eloquent figures several years ago. From among 354 graduate students at California and Stanford 56 per cent reported that they were not satisfied with their knowledge of the literature and the indexes and guides to the literature of their subject fields.¹

Out of fairness to college juniors and seniors, systematic instruction should be offered whereby they are given a comprehensive survey of the bibliographical aids and source materials of their major subject. If, however, conditions are such as will not permit the installation of a separate course in subject bibliography for upper classmen, some assistance can be provided nevertheless. This help can take the form of a mimeographed compendium of background books and sources of information especially designed for each field of major instruction.

Universities with graduate schools can well combine bibliographic courses for graduate students and upper classmen. However, whether it is a combination course of this sort or a separate departmental course, the question of who should teach it must be answered. Generally speaking, librarians ought to take over instruction in subject bibliography only by invitation, since this is after all the task of each department offering advanced work.

In our postwar era, more than ever before, the educated person will be appraised according to his ability to think, to discover, and to acquire information about men and affairs. What the library must do to help students meet such requirements is clear. However, it cannot prepare the student to search effectively and to find information independently unless sufficient time is allotted for the instruction it must impart. On the other hand, the library profession must be aware that success in this task can hardly be expected unless the following four elements are considered essential for the teaching plan: (1) authoritative instruction, (2) vitalized content, (3) informal discussion, (4) practical application.

¹ Hurt, P. "The Need of College and University Instruction in the Use of the Library," *Library Quarterly*, IV (1934), p. 441.

DO YOU BELIEVE IN YOUR JOB?

By JOSEPH ALLEN

The City College (New York)

The following article is an address that was given by Professor Joseph Allen at a meeting of the Chapter of the American Association of University Professors at Iowa State College, November 12, 1945. Professor Allen died on March 3, 1946, following a brief illness. Professor Allen was a Charter Member of the Association and served it in many capacities, including the following: Committee E on Organization and Functions of Chapters; Committee T on Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government; Nominating Committee; Editorial Committee; Chapter Secretary; Chapter President; and the Council. Until his retirement in 1940 Professor Allen was an Associate Professor of Mathematics at The City College (New York). In Professor Allen's death the Association and the profession as a whole lost a devoted friend.—THE EDITOR.

In 1920, a high school boy of 16, deeply impressed by the first World War, won a prize contest in *Boys' Life* with an essay of only three paragraphs. The first said: Certainly education is the most important thing in the world, because on their education depends how nations behave. The second cited the obvious case of Germany. The third said: Therefore, since education is by far the most important profession of all, every boy in college should determine to become a teacher. And only if he finds himself unfitted for teaching should he give up the idea. Upon his own graduation from college this boy became a teacher. But he was not happy in classroom work: teaching was not for him. So, true to his convictions, he continued in educational work, becoming a music-librarian. Was his conviction correct?

A century ago Horace Mann declared, "The common school for everyone is the greatest discovery ever made by man." Not paper, not gunpowder; not the compass, the telescope, or the steam engine; not any one of all the inventions that have led to the great

material prosperity of the United States and the progress of the world! Education for everyone, the greatest invention of all in 1850. Horace Mann himself contributed in great measure to this invention. Was he prejudiced in his judgment?

Some far-sighted men agreed substantially with him, but only a relative few. A teacher's position was considered by business men as almost menial. A common expression was, "Those who can, do. Others teach." Salaries were niggardly. The preparation demanded of a teacher was likewise meager. School-teaching was not a profession but a job. It enabled a young girl to add \$200 or \$300 to the family income, or it helped a college student to pay his expenses at college. School trustees themselves had usually only a common school education and their principal concern was to be economical.

Since that day the world has been literally deluged with great inventions, an awe-inspiring list. What would Horace Mann think today about the place of "education for everyone" among the great inventions of mankind? What is now the attitude of our leaders in government, in social action, in labor, and even in industry, as to the central importance of education in a free society, devoted to the welfare of mankind and the furtherance of our search for justice and happiness?

First, review briefly the great development of education itself in the nineteenth century. Horace Mann's common schools scarcely went through the secondary grades. New York City, for example, established its first public high schools just before the opening of the twentieth century. It seems a bit curious now, but it was entirely natural that universities and colleges were demanded centuries before high schools were thought of: Paris and Oxford, one thousand years ago; City College in New York and the state universities nearly fifty years before high schools were common. All this because until our own century only the exceptional boy (not girl) was considered worthy of higher education. It was, for instance, common in New York City for a family to devote all its efforts to put through college the one selected son, brothers contributing to his expenses through the whole college course. After graduation, as lawyer or physician this son would aid the family financially, as well as give distinction to it among the neighbors. This custom has en-

dured for centuries, abroad and here, and accounts for the advent of colleges before the general high school.

You know well the extraordinary increase in high schools, junior colleges, technical institutes, city and state higher establishments within this twentieth century. Higher education for all who are capable of benefiting by it is becoming an accepted principle in our democratic life. Ignorance is the cause of inefficiency; ignorance underlies crime; ignorance leads to prejudices, economic blunders, ill will, and wars. At long last, our Eric Johnstons, Henry Kaisers, as well as official statesmen and leaders in Congress, give as the means of solving the complex problems of our day: Education, more education, higher education, world-wide education. This belief, being emphasized so vigorously by men of action, is a realization of Horace Mann's conviction that education for all is the greatest discovery of man. A man who "can," nevertheless must learn scientifically and thoroughly "how," before he "does." His success depends on education and, therefore, upon the teacher.

II

If we look abroad, the evidence of the need for education accumulates. Think of the undeveloped peoples of the world: the masses in Africa, China, India, Burma. How much education have these countries given the common man? How about the peasants in Spain and Italy, the Balkans, Greece, and in large degree also even in Russia and France? As you drive over the line from the State of Maine into Quebec, you can hardly fail to sense the meagerness of schools in the latter province. How about the great areas populated by Indians in South America? Is it not abundantly clear that the fundamental lack for every one of these peoples is education? Hence the absence in all these places of an understanding of democratic ideals and of the ways of living together in a free society. Democratic customs and governments cannot be established upon ignorance. The enduring strength of a free society must come through untrammelled education of all its people.

There is serious danger of confusion in our peace planning, if universal suffrage and free elections are introduced before there has been adequate time for education. Enthusiasm for democracy may easily defeat its purpose by misplacing the burdens of responsible

government. Ignorant people are not capable of self-determination. They must have friendly guidance and education.

Is more evidence needed to convince anyone that the power of education is as great for the welfare of mankind as atomic energy? Let us not forget Hitler's early moves—to control completely schools and universities in preparation for his great effort to rule the world. The establishment of Nazi propaganda with rigid suppression of free inquiry, in place of unhampered advancement of learning, and of the search for truth, was Hitler's tribute to the great power that resides in education.

Now at last has come international recognition of Horace Mann's dictum, brought down to date to include not only the common school but all institutions and agencies for freeing humanity from ignorance and prejudice. Last July, as you know, a conference of Allied Ministers of Education met in London to prepare "Proposals for an Educational and Cultural Organization of the United Nations," as provided for in the United Nations Charter. The intent and purpose of this new agency for world welfare are indicated by statements in the preamble, as follows:

Dedicated to the proposition that the free and unrestricted education of the peoples of the world, and the free and unrestricted exchange among them of ideas and knowledge are essential to the advancement of human welfare and to the preservation of security and peace.

The purpose of the Educational and Cultural Organization of the United Nations shall be:

(1) To develop and maintain mutual understanding and appreciation of the life and culture, the arts, the humanities and the sciences of the peoples of the world, as a basis for effective international organisation and world peace.

(2) To cooperate in extending and in making available to all peoples for the service of common human needs the world's full body of knowledge and culture, and in assuring its contribution to the economic stability, political security, and general well-being of the peoples of the world.

Provision is also made for bringing the Organization into relationship with the United Nations Organization.

The years of 1944 and 1945 have been years of significant conferences for the establishment of carefully planned organizations

for the security and peace of all peoples—pre-eminently the international conferences on Food, on Labor, on Money and Finance; and the great San Francisco conference establishing the United Nations Organization, with its Security Council, its Assembly, and its Council for Economic and Social Welfare. All are contributing to the removal of ignorance and prejudices among nations.

Which do you consider to be the most far-reaching for the welfare of mankind? I hazard the guess that for ten or twenty years the Security Council must take the most prominent rôle; that then within a quarter of a century the Economic and Social Welfare Council will be doing its most effective work; but thereafter the leadership will pass to the Educational and Cultural Organization. Nineteen forty-five has been listed as Year I of the Age of Atomic Energy. It is also Year I of an age when physical energy and material possessions take second place below ideas and ideals. Today for the first time education takes openly and consciously its place as the most fundamental basis for security, justice, peace, and the pursuit of happiness.

III

Do you feel, as I do, the tremendous import of all this to the American Association of University Professors? Do you sense deeply yourself the personal responsibility that has fallen upon your job, and therefore inevitably upon you? Do you *believe* in your job?

For centuries teachers were generally considered inferior by the dominant men in business, finance, and government. The teacher's meager pay reflects this low opinion. And many teachers unfortunately have accepted a "Milquetoast" classification. The determination to give dignity to the profession of teaching in part explains the organization of our Association and its over-all objective, the development of the professional concept of teaching and research. In a short quarter century it has furthered this objective and its influence is steadily growing.

However, there are still two diametrically different attitudes toward professors. As a class they are frequently pictured as absent-minded, unpractical dreamers about Utopias, who if given power

would indulge in all sorts of boondoggling. But as individuals they are in great demand and highly respected as specialists who speak with earned authority and whose patient, painstaking, accurate researches have created the modern world, including the atomic bomb. We should take advantage of the growing respect for individuals in our profession by demonstrating the value of our own services.

You will, I think, agree with me that faculties are slow-moving and conservative. It must be admitted that we professors have on the whole been laggards in meeting our responsibilities for the advancement of education in a democracy. This lag, this laziness, this complacent preoccupation with our own nook in the world, we must now shake off. Years of devastation in war, culminating in the awe-inspiring control of atomic energy, require that we take up with vigor this momentous job which calls us—the steady fight against ignorance and prejudice through education.

We are not responsible for all education. Touching secondary education, the task in this country falls largely to the National Education Association. But for higher education, which includes the selection and thorough training of leaders in every field, the job is ours—in the American Association of University Professors. It is well for us that we are as well prepared for it as we are. In three decades much has already been done by the Association to lay secure foundations: through the work of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure, of Committee B on Freedom of Speech, and of Committee T on the Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government. Hard work still is needed in these same fields, we all know; but substantial progress has been made in giving our profession an honored and influential place in the community.

But this is all merely preliminary. Now we must take up our real job. You remember our stated purpose:

... the promotion of the interests of higher education and research, and in general to increase the usefulness and advance the standards and ideals of the profession.

First: We obviously must continue to increase our membership.

We should number at least 60,000. Increase of membership should be a first task for every chapter, with 100% as the goal.

Second: The chapter programs should be stimulating and constructive. When the Association as a whole concerns itself with a particular subject such as the Criteria for Promotion, or the Place and Function of Faculties in College and University Government, chapters should have their own committees to study this subject locally.

It is well to have an outside speaker once in a while, particularly if an Association officer or an Association Committee Chairman or member of the Association's Council is available. Shared experiences are often very stimulating. But in building a strong chapter nothing takes the place of active work by the members for local progress at the time when the whole Association is busy on similar problems. Incidentally such activity is a strong encouragement to the Council. A central Association Committee can guide, suggest, accumulate material, summarize results. But each chapter should also come to grips with professional problems at home.

Third: The chapter may often be of great value by conducting discussions on matters which are about to come before an institution's entire faculty. In a chapter meeting the formal atmosphere of the faculty meetings, in which deference must be paid to rank, seniority, administrative prestige, etc., is replaced by an informal atmosphere with a genuine interest in getting at the best solution of knotty problems. It provides conference and objective debate; it develops friendly tolerance in all fields of thought. A skillful chairman will do a real service (which may later improve faculty meetings) by calling upon and encouraging the timid teacher and the young teacher to enter the discussion—not letting the ready talkers monopolize the time.

It is a help to members in preparing to take their share in the work of the chapter if there be appointed an executive committee, consisting perhaps of the president, secretary, a former president, and two very active members. This committee can plan meetings, answer letters from the Association's central office, and analyze results of the last chapter meeting in making preparation for the next. Such care more than compensates for the time spent through the

greatly increased effectiveness and continuity of the work of the year.

Here at Iowa State College you undoubtedly appreciate these opportunities and methods which make a chapter valuable. But in many colleges there are no chapters. In large universities the chapter is often dormant. At Columbia University, for example, where the Association was founded, activity is now slight. One reason is that many professors become absorbed in their own departmental problems and societies, to the neglect of education as a whole. If any such professors are here, may I urge that rigid departmental dividing lines are too frequently a great hindrance in faculty deliberations, in instruction, and in achieving the paramount aim of our Association "to increase the usefulness and advance the standards and ideals of the profession."

IV

This brings us back to the wide, new field which education has entered, the new point of view that we must have of our job in higher education, the urgent opportunity that our Association and we as members of it have had thrust upon us. This is the task of aiding in the furthering of democracy. This must be done by education. This new vision is projected with clarity and force by a committee report recently issued through the Harvard University Faculty, called *General Education in a Free Society*. This report sets forth with helpful, practical details the new phase reached by education during the century that has gone by since Horace Mann declared the value of universal education.

What is new about this phase? Already education in the United States, first in colleges and then in high schools, has been planned and administered for students of high ability, the leaders-to-be of the next generation. Each specialized department has tried to secure and develop as honor students the ablest in each school or college class. The less able and the mediocre are given scant attention. They are expected to go to vocational or trade schools, to train for earning their living. Even teachers colleges are too frequently handled as vocational schools, not giving any attention to culture. Moreover, only one-sixth of our youth go to high school

at all. Only 1 in 12 of these finishes: the rest go from secondary school to trade school or to work. Furthermore, only 1 in 4 goes from high school to college. Yet the number of high school students has since 1870 increased 90 times, while population has increased only 3 times. We all are familiar with such figures.

But we scarcely realize a certain ominous result. These two divisions of our students this Report calls Jeffersonian and Jacksonian—the one aiming at superior excellence and culture, and the other at practical vocational skill. We scarcely realize that between them has been created a chasm, tending unhappily toward class distinctions with mutual strong prejudices and misunderstandings. In particular, they have no general sense of a common heritage, of united ideals, of citizenship in common. To close this chasm, there must be both in high school and in college a common core of General Education to prepare each generation to be worthy citizens of a Free Society. This common understanding is as essential for the exceptional Jeffersonian student as it is for the mass of equally valuable Jacksonian citizens. A cursory glance at our present leaders in government, business, and labor emphasizes the prevailing lack of a common understanding of democratic ideals and needs.

So this educational era, just opening for us, gives our profession an exciting opportunity and a sobering responsibility. For, as we succeed in this stupendous task of changing over our educational curricula, and in shifting our teaching emphasis to general education for all, in the essentials of our way of life, so shall we make our weighty contribution to peace throughout the world.

Some may be inclined to call this general education only a form of propaganda, indoctrinating our youth so as to prevent the free search for truth by the next generation. Of course that is a superficial comment. The eternal function of education is to pass on, from the age that is past to the age of the future, accumulated skills and knowledge. Such a general education as we must develop and spread as widely as possible is concerned with the determination and the achievement of judgment and wisdom, for the betterment of community living and the general welfare.

As a beginning a chapter could not do better than to study and discuss this report about general education. It has been acclaimed

and heartily endorsed by leaders of education and by interested laymen of renown all over the country. To quote from this report:

Not very long ago the mass of mankind could and did leave peace-making, for example, to statesmen. Today most people feel some of its weight on their [own] shoulders. . . . Among and beyond all the local and personal motives which drive men to pursue education, this budding collective responsibility grows in power. . . . [War has shown us that] in general education the strongest incentive comes from the whole man's awareness of his share in the common fate, of his part in the joint undertaking.

This then emerges as our job—to increase that awareness. Do you believe that it is your job? Do you believe in it? Are you doing your share in the activities of our professional Association, that it may guide, direct, and strengthen this our work?

THE NEW LIBERAL EDUCATION

By DANIEL E. PHILLIPS

Shepherd College

The liberal arts college is the oldest son of the Renaissance and its foster mother has been the church. The church and private colleges were dominant in the early days of higher education, and even today private schools have the largest enrollment. They early incorporated Greek, Latin, logic, philosophy, and a limited field of literature and history, because of their relation to the church.

For years liberal arts has been a storm center of educational controversy and especially during this tragic period. Her chief competitor has been the bread and butter education in the form of the special mechanical, occupational, and commercial schools. She has undergone many changes, but now, if she is to survive, a great transformation is necessary. She must be born again, and we hope the birth agonies will not be drawn out for a hundred years. She will survive and must survive for the good of civilization.

However, three radical changes must take place if the liberal arts college is to be born with vigor and with strength. (1) It must set forth definite and specific objectives that may be shown to serve both individual and universal needs. (2) The material content must be entirely remodeled to meet these needs. (3) A radical transformation of instruction must permeate the whole of such colleges.

II

In the first place her chief aim must be the solution of the most pressing need of humanity and the inner development of a select few to lead and guide mankind out of its wilderness of ignorance. At this moment nothing is so much needed as a better understanding of the forces that have made humanity what it is today—a comprehensive view of human development. Such knowledge will

show us that the same urges, desires, instincts, feelings, longings, ambitions, aspirations, gifts, and thirst for intellectual realization have dominated and directed human development everywhere. Such knowledge will at least help soften vengeance, anger, hate, contempt for others and their ways, greed and plunder, conceit of individuals and of nations. It will point the way to human betterment founded on the laws of humanity rather than on unworkable and idealistic schemes for making the human race over.

People in high places act as if there are no fundamental laws of humanity. Individuals do not make history. They are only the objective embodiment of deep underlying social and political forces. Tolstoi expresses it definitely near the close of *War and Peace*: "Historians foolishly preach and teach that Napoleon commanded 600,000 men to march into Russia and they marched. Alas: They could not have marched unless 600,000 commands had been previously given."

The new liberally educated man must be master of this comprehensive view of human development and diffuse it far and wide. It will free him and qualify him to be a leader of the people. It will give him that inner appreciation and serenity of soul a liberal education is supposed to give. Then he will feel his responsibility to the whole of which he is a part. Nothing else can save civilization from the calamity that confronts us. Bread and butter education may save us from starving, but no form of it can save the world from moral bankruptcy. If morality is lost all is lost. Only a well-planned and directed education can avert this disaster. This is what the new liberal education must do.

What are the generally agreed characteristics of a liberal education? From dictionaries and many recent discussions I have collected a few of the outstanding ones: "freedom from prejudices and narrow-mindedness" (most frequently emphasized), "capable of organizing essential facts into great wholes," "a knowledge of the past that enables one to anticipate the future," "fitted for leadership," "a desire for and capability of self-education," "serenity of soul in times of stress," "a world comprehension of human development," "a feeling of responsibility to the whole of which he is a part," "open-minded, candid, generous, free," "mindful of the purposes and ends of human effort," "sensitive to all the values

that give meaning to life," "to be literate and articulate," "to enable one to live an inner-appreciative, free life and yet serve society," "to develop a free man."

By the selection of the proper material and instruction that keeps these objectives constantly in mind, these ends are so related that the development of such characteristics is by no means an impossible achievement for those who seek to lift man above the bread and butter level of human existence. We might condense these characteristics of a liberally educated man by saying that he has a comprehensive view of human development, of the forces that have produced human society, of her achievements and her struggles, of her urgent needs; and that he lives an inner appreciative life that leads to a universal sympathy for the human race, blindly struggling for something better. Thus we would reach the climax that this universe has a moral meaning or it has none at all. Mechanics, science, commerce, politics, are necessary, but all of them combined cannot save the world from moral bankruptcy. The only hope lies in a well-guided education.

III

Our second problem is the selection of the best material to develop such a liberal education. Our first group is biology, anthropology, psychology, and sociology. If these subjects properly presented will not cure an individual of prejudices and narrow-mindedness and give him a world view on which to build all future interpretations of humanity, then he is one of those machine-educated individuals for whom there is no hope. But observe that these subjects may all be presented long before the student enters liberal arts. Only hang essential facts on big ideas and you are on the road to a liberal education.

1. Biology so presented to develop the idea of universal evolution is the first step to a free liberal education. How can any student who gets even a faint idea that the family, religion, society, institutions, and governments have all evolved out of previous conditions still retain undiminished his prejudices and narrow-mindedness, especially concerning races and nationalities?

2. Even a glimpse of anthropology will slay a thousand super-

stitutions and lead to sympathy for struggling humanity. How can anyone sanction the plunder, robbery, and annihilation of primitive peoples? Some one has said that to know a savage is to love him. At least, it means sympathy, the world's most crying need today.

Primitive peoples were never so hopeless and depraved as we once thought. Today, they are decidedly more moral than we give them credit for, yet their extinction has been gradually going on all over the world. The last original inhabitant of Newfoundland died in Montreal in 1828. The Hawaiians will soon be Christianized and civilized by substitution. They have no future but in heaven. Primitive savagery is gradually giving way to civilized savagery.

3. A sound psychology founded on evolution and human development is one of the greatest needs of the hour. It is absolutely necessary to save us from an old-time, patched-up peace. All former alliances and treaties have ignored the fundamental underlying biological and psychological laws of peoples. But the objective psychology of peoples is powerless in the face of arrogant vengeance, hate, fear, greed, hunger, despair. All of which emphasizes its necessity in a liberal education. To understand these biological forces that have made humanity is to fathom the real causes of war and to prepare for some form of peaceful relations.

When I entered upon graduate work under that master mind—G. Stanley Hall—I was disgusted to find my pet subject—philosophy—placed under psychology. I soon listened to lectures, however, on various philosophers as to the psychology that led them to this or that philosophical system. I was inquiring whether their lives made their philosophy or whether their philosophy made their lives, or how they acted and reacted on each other. My truly liberalizing education began as I listened to lectures on the savage, the insane, the criminal, the outcast, the feeble-minded, the gifted, the genius. Four months did more to cure me of conceit, bigotry, and narrow-mindedness than all of my four years of liberal arts.

4. Sociology gives us a deeper insight into the entanglements of human conduct. It enables us to see how different nations came to have different ways of life from others and why each clings to its own as the best. It gives an individual poise and serenity in the midst of world upheavals. It digs into religious prejudices and narrow-mindedness. It checks wild idealistic schemes for sud-

denly re-making human nature. If one year of sociology is not worth more than four years of Latin then I have no conception of human values. Values must look both to the individual and to society.

5. Literature is the life-blood of the race. It is a part of the artistic struggle of the race, as well. Both are the expression of the deepest urge of the human family—a great struggle for self-realization. Like everything else, it is an evolution through dances, songs, myths, stories, art, into higher and higher forms of this universal urge to self-realization. The Hindu poet expressed it well by saying:

Something compels me somewhere,
Yet I see no meaning in life's long mystery.

History is one great exhibition of these biological and psychological forces. Great pieces of literature are dreams of yesterday and visions of tomorrow. No one can boast of having a liberal education by knowing half a dozen pieces of literature. He must realize their evolution out of the hearts of men.

Here the humanitarians and classicists should join hands by the abandonment of all required courses in dead languages in high schools and liberal arts. Considering the exploded claims of these studies, it is an educational crime to require three or four years of Latin in our high schools. What a foundation could be laid for a liberal education if this time were spent on the best translations of Greek and Roman literature.

About ten years ago there were over 760,000 students enrolled in Latin in our high schools. This exceeded all other subjects save English and Algebra. In 1928 over 8000 were studying Greek.

There are reasons that act as requirements, such as the anticipation of entering professional schools in spite of the fact that students do not rely on their knowledge of the classics but on recent special dictionaries.

The influence of church schools for many years created a psychological atmosphere that only students having studied Latin and Greek had a real education—the A.B. degree. Other courses

were created for weaklings who could not take a real education. When I entered college, I was confronted with four different courses, any one of which would determine my whole future career. Purely because of the pressure of this psychological atmosphere, I selected the classical course leading to an A.B. degree.

Just think of the absurdity of holding that students do not have sense enough to choose between subjects, yet forcing them to make these momentous decisions. This unadulterated nonsense is still practiced. Students should be given some preliminary courses opening up the great avenues of life. We should also abandon waterproof compartments between studies and courses. Only recently in *Fortune's* studies of private high schools, many prodigious questions, such as "What educational innovations are undertaken?" were asked. One school said: "Everyone is compelled to take Latin."

In my own case we had a good teacher, yet we developed only a limited reading ability in a few pieces of literature. We knew nothing of Socrates, of Plato's *Republic*, of the great Greek tragedies, and we were entirely ignorant of that great ancient, yet modern, scientist—Aristotle. My knowledge of these great men came with those broad-minded lectures in philosophy, on Lewis's *Biographical History*, on a study of Plato's *Republic*.

Teachers of the classics seem to assume that their students are going on to mastery in these languages. Yet, not one in a thousand does. The claim that we must know these languages in order to know our own is utter folly. Years ago when President Eliot of Harvard University opened up electives in that great institution, the same cry went up all over the country. He briefly answered his critics by saying: "Pray tell me what languages the Greeks studied that they could create a language that all the world would want to study?"

Recently Dr. W. C. Korfmacher made a defense of the classics as if these studies created the human intellect. He says: "Men must still reason, analyze, appraise, evaluate, estimate, judge, decide, have exact knowledge." How many fields call for all of these? Let any layman tamper with electricity without an exact knowledge and he will soon need an undertaker.

The claim that the use of translations does not give an insight into the life of the people is equally absurd. If Jowett's life-time study of these languages did not give him a true picture of the life and ideas of the people, how could we expect to get it in four or six years? How would we ever know anything about Chinese and Hindu civilizations?

We need to hold on to humanistic education, but greatly enlarged and modified to further the objectives already set forth. It must be enlarged to cover literature from all lands. It must include rather wide translations of Greek and Latin, and it must also include a wide view of art as well. All must be seen as a struggle of the race to self-realization. Sociological history must be made to reveal human development. Philosophy must trace its evolution from *myths* to our highest ethical systems. The evolution of religion should replace opposition and contempt with deep sympathy. Such material, properly taught, may develop the marks of a liberal education.

6. Mathematics as a part of a liberal education has been a battleground for years. If we keep in mind that our objective is to give the liberally educated man a comprehensive view of the struggles and achievements of the human family rather than to make highly classed specialists, most of these difficulties will be eliminated.

That master mathematician, Dr. Story, preceded his technical courses by a series of lectures on the struggles, labors, developments, and services of mathematics to mankind. Recently, several books have appeared, aiming to accomplish this purpose, but they need more biographical and historic background. Indeed, these should be dominant. Certainly a man may have a liberal education without a technical knowledge of surveying, astronomy, or calculus. Just as one may appreciate music without being able to produce it, so we may appreciate the wonders of mathematics and its applications and solutions to a thousand human problems.

The big playhouse and the making of amateur specialists have about swallowed up the liberal arts college. It must either give up these or surrender the throne it has so long occupied in education. If not, soon the only difference between special schools and liberal

arts will be the playhouse and the names of courses. But the present emergency will compel adjustment to some new basis.

7. Science stands king of the hour. It can supply our physical needs, but it cannot complete the circle and supply our spiritual and moral needs. It has no power over greed, vengeance, hate, fear, treachery, deceit, nor can it produce or manufacture inner lasting peace and happiness. These things should in some degree grow out of a liberal education.

Yet a comprehensive view of science is a part of a liberal education. An individual may have an appreciative knowledge of the achievements of science without being a specialist in any one of them. At the close of the 19th century, several books appeared which gave in an interesting and comprehensive manner a survey of the achievements in science. It is my opinion that some company should undertake to make an annual contribution toward the bringing of scientific records up to date.

IV

Methods of instruction must be radically changed to meet the needs of a liberal education. This will follow as day follows night if the aims of a liberal education are accepted and constantly kept in mind. Such an education should develop an integrated view of life and the human struggle.

1. The liberal arts teacher must abandon the idea that he has before him a group of embryonic specialists to be converted into one like himself. He must keep in mind that his objective is the freedom, liberation, and conversion of individuals into men and women with the characteristics of a liberal education.

An endless string of facts which the specialist must have is not necessary to the accomplishment of these ends. Present outstanding facts tied to big ideas and you have started on the road to a liberal education.

2. Universal evolution is the biggest and most necessary concept in biology. The ability to dissect frogs, grasshoppers, and cats has little to contribute to this world concept. From what prejudices and narrow-mindedness does it liberate the student? How

does it contribute to leadership or social responsibility? Ten thousand other cases could be taken from the current presentation of the various sciences, all of which are quite desirable for making specialists but which contribute little to the liberal education so much needed.

3. Methods in literature need to be born again. They have gone to seed in technicalities and opinions about literature. The study has become objective when nine-tenths of its value will always be the subjective effect on the individual. Its field must be vastly extended. It must become extensive instead of intensive.

In my college course in Shakespeare three things destroyed its liberalizing value. The course centered on *The Merchant of Venice*, with an endless number of references and critics' opinions. The instructor told us in detail what each act and scene was intended to portray. We copied all of this in notebooks which were to be given back on examination. Of all subjects literature is one that should be taught free from standard examinations. The questions asked should aim to draw out the reactions on the inner life of the student. Naturally, no two could be alike, save where they are dictated by the instructor. Facts about literature are not literature. The real objective is the expansion of the individual's inner life. Only when we feel some inner transformation, something turned loose in us, has a piece of literature reached its highest value for us. If we read over the collected characteristics of a liberal education, we will observe that perhaps literature touches more of them than any other one subject.

Our intense college concentration prevented that large panoramic view which is so sorely needed today. We should have read a dozen or two plays including the Greek tragedies and related them to the world-wide struggle for self-realization.

Most of these observations apply to the teaching of history with its endless string of supposedly fixed facts. Take a single case to see how easy it is to get out of that line of facts. I once asked forty eighth-grade children to give the cause of the Civil War. Like a parrot came the answer: "Slavery." Then I asked them to name some of the people who did not believe in slavery. Wendell Phillips, Daniel Webster, and Lincoln were named. When I asked them *why* these men did not believe in slavery, the uniform answer

was: "Because they believed that all men are born free and equal." Then I said: "If Lincoln had been born in New Orleans, had never been out of the State of Louisiana, had been educated in their schools, had inherited a plantation with 300 slaves on it, how many of you believe he would have been opposed to slavery?" Not a single hand went up.

Here is a form of teaching history with such simple psychology behind it that eighth-grade children can get it. At this hour nothing is needed more than this interpretation of history. History needs to be transformed from a fact basis to a sociological basis as urged by Spencer nearly 100 years ago. What about our boasted assumption that this or that past happening was good or bad? Good or bad for whom? Suppose Napoleon had not been defeated at Waterloo! Who can prove that the world would have been better or worse today?

4. Not one-tenth of the technical physiological psychology usually presented is necessary to secure a comprehensive idea of the universal laws of human development. We need a simplified high-school text on human development, using hundreds of cases similar to the Civil War case already presented. Let attention be centered on the biological urges, feelings, impulses, gifts of original nature, and their modifications by the ever-increasing complexity of conditions and training. Liberal education both to the good of the individual and society may begin in the high school. The imperative need of postwar years will be an intellectual poise to deliver us from hate, vengeance, fear, deceit, treachery, egotism, . . . one that will lead to an understanding of the problems of other people and their struggles.

Finally, if the new liberal education will stay by its professed objectives, will adopt them with sincerity and determination, and will modify its contents and methods, the liberal arts college will be born again. Such an education will develop the most needed force in the world—sympathy for struggling, discouraged humanity. The truly liberated man becomes a citizen of the world. He acts and speaks for all nations and for all times. Socrates, Christ, Confucius, and Buddha are the highest types.

The liberal arts graduates will for many years be small in comparison to the total population, but they will act as a balance-

wheel during this necessarily materialistic age. Through such an education they may produce a genuine evolution in our low stage of morality. Only a democratic society that becomes saturated with a moral urge can ultimately survive. Without morality all is lost!

"WE ARE NOT AMUSED"

A Professorial View of College Presidents

By EDITH RONALD MIRRIELEES

Stanford University

When Hiram Haydn's "Why College Presidents Wear Out" made its appearance in the *New York Times Magazine*, it probably drew chuckles enough from its readers. When it reappeared in this *Bulletin*¹ it probably did not.

Its failure to draw them was not by reason of college teachers' lacking a sense of humor; it was that what the article emphasized was a dilemma already familiar. College teachers everywhere recognize this dilemma by at least one of its faces. That one is that year by year the inducing of any outstanding professor to undertake a college presidency becomes more difficult. Year by year, therefore, more outsiders—publicists, army officers, writers, industrialists—step into presidential chairs. Having so stepped, they find in their paths about the same number of dragons as would a professor of the theory of music who took over the management of Willow Run. This is not to say that some of them do not succeed. They do, just as, during two wars, some professors successfully led combat troops and aided in the planning of campaigns. There is, however, this difference between the two cases. Before the professor took on his new occupation, he had ordinarily a preliminary training under experts and a set of rules for guidance. Many college presidents have no such luck.

Dr. Haydn guesses that salary and prestige account for most presidential acceptances. The professorial guess is kinder. Salary and prestige have their places, of course, but another force is at least as potent. Many, perhaps most, newly made presidents enter office lured by the same hope that inspires the best of the teachers under them—the hope of being of signal service to youth. Once entered, they find themselves being instead of a service some-

¹ Autumn, 1945 *Bulletin*, pp. 455-461.

thing less than signal to a clientele considerably less cohesive. "Reasons of state," to borrow Dr. Haydn's phrase, call on a college president to speak, to travel, to introduce speakers, stand in reception lines, attend dinners, sign manifestoes, serve on prize-giving committees. Meanwhile, while he struggles to accomplish all these things, the place that academic matters occupy in his college comes more and more to resemble the filling of a wartime sandwich—a thin, a very thin, layer of offered learning crushed between slabs of the extracurricular.

Below the teaching level (I speak chronologically only), undergraduates "trot about and trot about on errands whereof no man knows the reason." Above the teaching level (this time I speak hierarchically), presidents do the same. The cases are identical. Both live in a welter of conflicting claims. Both carry on life breathlessly. And to do justice to them, both do so under the pressure of purposes more than three-fourths unselfish. Sophomores do not inhabit the bleachers through interminable practice hours, yell leaders do not contort themselves and wring out new slogans for their own amusement primarily. They are there for undergraduate "reasons of state." President and sophomore alike immolate themselves for what they take to be the welfare of their college.

Motives, though, are mixed with all of us. Public opinion, that part of it loud-voiced enough to make itself heard, urges them on. "Staying home to study instead of getting out and supporting the team? There's something wrong with you, my lad." . . . "Objecting to cutting your office hours to take Mr. Millions round the golf course? There's something wrong with you, Mr. President." Nobody likes being out of step. And so far, only the incorrigible academics seem to have observed that students possessed of the greater amounts of college spirit habitually possess also the lower academic ratings; or that presidents with the widest range of outside interests preside over the most scrap-heap administrations—with exceptions, of course, in either group. There are bound to be exceptions; Caesar reputedly could "dictate six letters at once, at the same time writing a seventh." Some Caesar slips now and then into a presidency, whether of college or of student body, but the number is not large.

To explain how a president's day is filled Dr. Haydn devotes a

timed list reaching from "rises" to "bed but not sleep." Almost any professor reading the list will nod agreement: Yes, that is the way the day goes; yes, if the record errs, it is by understatement. Not being blessed, as a rule, with wide acquaintanceship among college presidents, the professor can only take on trust two curious minor manifestations that, perhaps accidentally, are revealed in the record. The first of these is the existence in the presidential mind of an attitude of derision towards his faculty. "Tries to pacify Professor Jones," whose cause for anger is ridiculous; "Appointment with Professor Wigglesworth, chairman (and only member) of the Philosophy Department. . . ." The second is that such small mention as is made of college administration shows that administration to be of the worst ". . . finds Dean Pennywhistle waiting" for a decision that any decent efficiency would have left strictly to Dean Pennywhistle; "Conference with the budgetary pundits" over unforeseen expenses. Odd, how regularly the unforeseen arises to obstruct the presidential path!

These revelations, though, are no more than side issues. The main issue is that the college president habitually fails to stick to his job—fails, indeed, to discover what his job is. His failure is hard on a good many people. It is hard on his various audiences and readers, who get from him oftenest a distillation of somebody else's day-before-yesterday's thought. It is hard on the institution's faculty. It is hardest of all on the students, the very people he most wanted to serve. At home and in class, these find themselves admonished often enough on the duty of performing their assigned tasks, of turning a deaf ear to distractions—on the duty, in short, of doing their duty. Raising their eyes to the highest officer within their immediate view, they fall into confusion. What does sticking to your task bring you? Why, apparently, a professorship. And not sticking to it? Not much persuasive strength to precept so long as example is close at hand to contradict it.

The president, naturally, suffers too from the demands made on him. His sufferings, though, may properly be placed last, for he has a way out if ever he chooses to take it. Some day—and the day may be not far off—a president will step into office having decided in advance what his position calls for. Is he appointed primarily as a publicity director? As a money raiser *per se*? Then

somebody else must meet the institution's internal needs, he keeping hands off. Is he a shaper of public opinion, super-wise (where a year ago he was ignorant) in matters national and international? Is he an entertainer, welcome at commencements, doubly welcome at banquets? Or is he perhaps, in fact as well as in name, the head of an institution of higher learning, devoting his time and energy to furthering higher learning, sitting down at his desk at nine, rising from it at five, drawn away from it only on matters of genuine educational import? The president who first makes this final decision and, having made it, lives up to it, may well be martyr to his own clear-sightedness, but his successors will call him blessed and the faculty raise monuments in his honor.

VISUAL EDUCATION AND THE MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRY

By WILLIS H. MILLER

U. S. Veterans Administration

Visual education should come into its own now that peace is here again. The practicability of new visual teaching aids has been firmly established by the Army and the Navy in their intensive war training programs. These same techniques can be applied in many other fields with equal success.

It may be assumed that forward-looking educators everywhere will be eager to improve their teaching methods by increased emphasis on visual instruction. The major stumbling block in such a program is the lack of suitable material. Old line items include maps, charts, and slides. All of these are useful, and for certain limited purposes may be regarded as adequate. Quite naturally, however, they lack the scope and power of that greatest of all visual devices—the motion picture.

A considerable part of the success of visual training in the military field is due to the availability of especially prepared films of professional quality. Students are used to seeing the finest motion picture products in their neighborhood theatres. To be effective, training films must be equally good. Virtually no such films presently exist for general use in schools and colleges.

II

The need for moving pictures in education may be accepted as a fact which soon will be generally recognized. Something almost certainly will be done about it within the near future. Both a demand and the facilities for its satisfaction exist. The real question, then, is less *whether* action will be taken along this line, and more *by whom* and *how* that action will be taken.

As in all large-scale ventures there are a number of alternate methods of procedure. Small companies might be formed to pro-

duce educational pictures. Major producers might assume the manufacture of educational movies as an incidental service activity. Universities and foundations might get into the business. The Federal government might undertake the job. Any of these methods, or any combination of them, would work to a certain limited degree. None of them nor any combination of them would be adequate for so important a project.

It seems clear that for best results the making of educational films should be cooperative and coordinated rather than competitive and confused. A successful program would require support and assistance from many individuals and groups. Such essential support could be marshalled only behind a unified program so well organized that effective results are virtually assured.

When it comes to making moving pictures the motion picture industry is supreme. To an unparalleled degree it has the resources and the reputation necessary to put the making of educational films on a firm foundation. If it chose to do so, the motion picture industry could perform an invaluable public service and build up an enormous reservoir of good will by assuming leadership in this field. It is therefore proposed that the leading motion picture companies jointly establish an Educational Film Institute.

III

The Educational Film Institute should produce a series of training films specifically designed for use in connection with various subjects taught in schools and colleges. For maximum utility, these films should be designed as adjuncts to specific courses, and not as short cuts to knowledge or substitutes for the normal teacher-student relationship.

Educational films should rate high when judged from both the technical and academic points of view. The adopted standard well might be sound pictures in natural color. Appropriate use also should be made of the marvelously developed new cartoon techniques.

The Institute should make its educational films available to every school and college in the country with the desire and facilities to use them. Large and medium sized institutions probably can

be counted on to provide themselves with suitable screens and projectors once they are positive that sufficient top-quality films will be available to warrant the expense. Small country schools always have been woefully underequipped. The Institute might give attention to ways and means of bringing the advantages of training films to them, too.

IV

As herein proposed, the Educational Film Institute would be a quasi-independent, nonprofit subsidiary of the motion picture industry. Its policies, programs, and fiscal affairs should be under the general supervision of a Board composed of representatives of the several sponsoring companies.

Management of the affairs of the Institute should rest with a Director appointed by and responsible to the Board. Within reasonably broad limits, his authority should be final. Among other qualifications, the Director should be a man who has both administrative ability and recognized academic standing. Here, as elsewhere, the success of the undertaking would depend largely on the executive in charge.

When the Institute's program gets under way on full scale, a well-balanced staff of educational and production technicians would be necessary for work in the home office and in the field. A normal quota of secretarial and other assistants also would be required. Quite probably divisions to handle activities in the several specialized fields would be established within the organization. A few roving parties of camera and sound men might be required for use in areas where such services are not conveniently available. Except for occasional films depicting historical incidents or famous plays, however, no actors at all would be necessary. With access to the facilities and resources of the motion picture industry in various parts of the world, it seems unlikely that a permanent staff of more than some 200 or 300 people would ever be needed.

If operated as here described, the technical quality of resulting films would be assured. Academic quality would be somewhat more difficult to achieve. Certain things along this line could be done, however, in addition to having a Director with academic qualifications and a group of properly trained, full-time, educa-

tional technicians. Films in various fields should be made with the advice of consultants well known to and respected by their colleagues. It also is quite possible that top-flight professional organizations, like the Association of American Geographers, would cooperate by designating official advisory committees to provide general supervision of films made in their areas of specialization.

In the selection of educational personnel one guiding principle is so important that it hardly can be overemphasized. Those making decisions regarding Institute policies and films must be recognized specialists in and successful teachers of the subject matter with which they are concerned. The scope and content of historical films should be dictated by historians, of geological films by geologists, and of engineering films by engineers.

It may be confidently expected that control of the Institute will be sought by "educationists"—students of school organization, administration, and teaching methods (not subject matter)—who have been trained in and hold degrees from colleges or departments of education. These people will have a contribution to make, and their advice and counsel should be appropriately used throughout the program. It is of the utmost importance, however, that their rôle be subordinate, not dominant.

Education in general and visual education in particular are directed toward specific understandings about definite things. Educational films must be good solid stuff. Their production should not degenerate into a device for the imposition of "progressive" or any other "educational" fads and theories.

V

To make any real headway in satisfying the anticipated demand for its product, a properly established Educational Film Institute should operate on a fairly substantial scale. The cost of such a program would, of course, depend on the number and type of films produced. It is roughly estimated that an annual budget of from five to ten million dollars would permit a reasonable production schedule and, over a period of years, result in a satisfactory output of material. Unlike pictures produced for entertainment purposes, educational films have semi-permanent value—the same

film can be shown to class after class with no deterioration of effectiveness.

Such an expenditure is considerable but not exorbitant when compared either with the benefits—tangible and intangible—to be derived, or with the price of a single “epic” picture. Quite probably an initial subsidy of 100 per cent would be required, but this gradually could be cut down until after some years the Institute might be virtually self-supporting.¹ The American public is generous in its financial backing of education. There is every reason to believe that good educational films would be rented or purchased at rates commensurate with their production cost. Certain poor, country areas, however, might prove to be exceptions to this general rule.

Even if the motion picture industry had to finance the entire program year in and year out, it might be regarded as an entirely legitimate investment in good will and improved public relations. Also, the ever-growing library of the Institute should be open to supporting companies in need of authentic background or fill-in scenes for various pictures on their current production schedules.

Although the fiscal aspect always must be considered, some things cannot be measured adequately by a yardstick of dollars and cents. Educational films seem to be of this type. Few things are of more basic importance than education. Few things could do more to stimulate interest in learning and to raise teaching standards than good instructional films.

Geography may be taken as an example of procedure in making educational films. The standard introductory course in geography deals with relationships between human activity and the natural environment, especially climate and landforms. A series of pictures could be made illustrating these elements and relationships in various regions of the world—weather, natural vegetation, native animals, people, houses, transportation, and ways of making a living—all could be shown with a clarity otherwise unobtainable except by a professionally conducted tour of the world. Similar films could be made for courses in economic and regional geography.

¹ Considering present income tax laws, the nonprofit, educational nature of the proposed Institute well might enhance the desirability of substantial contributions from corporations.

Although geography is well adapted to the motion picture approach in visual education, it should not be regarded as unique. Other subjects which could be treated in a more or less similar way include geology, history, art, botany, zoology, economics, political science, and languages. Cartoon type movies probably would be of major value in fields like engineering, meteorology, chemistry, and physics, although this highly significant technique also could be used to advantage elsewhere.

VI

It is recommended that the leading motion picture producing companies consider the rôle of the industry in the field of educational films. Should it be decided that joint action along this line is both possible and desirable, an Educational Film Institute should be organized with the understanding that, if careful investigation shows the opportunities for service to be as great as anticipated, it will be adequately supported for an indefinite period of years.

Once this is done, a nucleus staff should be appointed and preliminary work begun. Contact should be made with the several professional societies representing the fields in which educational films might be made and with the school and college groups representing the institutions which would use the finished product. With the guidance of recommendations from these specialists, a preliminary production schedule should be outlined, and work started on detailed plans for the first films to be made.

At the same time a survey should be made of the motion picture industry to ascertain what suitable material already is in film libraries, and what camera and sound equipment is available in various parts of the world where from time to time work would be needed. Many of the war training films already made should have peace-time value. A catalogue of these should be made and plans for their general use worked out with proper authorities.

Attention also should be given to matters such as the provision of adequate projection and sound equipment in schools and colleges, and methods of distributing films. The latter might be handled by using the facilities of existing commercial channels.

Good equipment for a considerable number of small, poor schools could be supplied if the many excess projectors and screens owned by the Army and Navy could be earmarked for this purpose. Preliminary inventories of such items and plans for enabling legislation should be begun at once.

Other production, administrative, and distribution problems undoubtedly would come to light as preliminary work progressed. These should be satisfactorily solved as soon as they are recognized.

The staff and facilities of the Institute should grow gradually as the need for new personnel and equipment is demonstrated. It well might be a year or two before the program of the Institute swings into high gear. In a new venture of this magnitude and significance, soundness is of far greater importance than speed.

ADDITIONAL HINTS TO PROFESSORS

By MAJOR J. L. ROGERS, A.G.D.

Army Service Forces

I have read with considerable interest Edward C. McDonagh's "Some Hints to Professors" in the Winter, 1945 *Bulletin*. I have also shown it to a number of patients and other servicemen who hope to be students soon. We find little in the article to which we would take exception but there are certain items which we think the writer might well have elaborated on.

Undoubtedly it was not his intent, but the reader might gain the impression that veterans as a class can properly be assumed to have certain attitudes. We know that no man has been unchanged by military service, but we think it should be emphasized that each will be affected in terms of his previous background and personality and that common experiences will not necessarily produce identical reactions or attitudes. You will discover that almost every veteran dislikes being approached with the preconceived idea that he presents a specific problem merely because he is a veteran. For that matter, few like to be considered a "problem" at all; yet most of them are very appreciative when they find someone who shows them he understands their difficulties. When anyone writes about "*the*" veteran, we suggest you read it as "certain" or "some" veterans; do not start looking for particular reactions until they appear.

I personally feel that Mr. McDonagh is too optimistic about the motives of veterans who will be attending college. Some to whom I have talked seem to be planning college attendance largely because they are unable to come to a decision about other possibilities. With the uncertainties now facing them in the business world, they feel confused and insecure about vocational plans; college seems, in their words, "like a pretty good deal." College attendance for this group is a stop-gap until they see what business and employment conditions will be in later months; as students I fear

they will leave much to be desired. It is true that college experiences reported to date indicate that returned veterans, as a group, are more serious-minded than the usual college students. But for a professor to proceed on the assumption that all veterans in his class will be of this type is certain to lead to disappointing results.

Nor will all be as confident or as assured as their behavior suggests. It is obvious that they are more mature in many respects than a peace-time student body of the same ages; so obvious that their immaturity in other respects may be covered up. It may prove a decided fallacy, for example, to assume that because a youngster confidently flew a half-million-dollar bomber, he will be equally confident in facing novel social situations. Assumption of a confident, aggressive pattern of conduct may only hide true feelings of inadequacy and insecurity.

Many veterans smiled when they read the statements about the excellence of Army instruction; apparently they had had some contradictory experiences. Almost universally veterans are enthusiastic about the Army's use of motion pictures and other visual aids, and hope that they will find college instruction using more such aids than formerly. There are some other features of the Army's program, however, which they are not so eager to see adopted.

For example, different men say they do not want to see colleges copying from the Army:

(a) Authoritarian statements and dogmatic assertions by the instructor; refusal to listen to varying viewpoints or challenges; curtailing of discussion;

(b) Insistence upon reproduction by students of exact phraseology used by the instructor; required memorization of trivia and minute details of terminology;

(c) Insistence upon uniformity of procedures from class to class regardless of the types of individuals making up the group or of an instructor's special abilities;

(d) Uniform assignments for all students; indefinite assignments; assignments made for "eye-wash" purposes;

(e) Failure to consider previous learning and background of students; impersonal treatment of class members;

(f) Instruction pitched at the level of the lowest members of a class; needless repetition for this purpose;

(g) Instructors who keep only one lesson ahead of the class in preparation;

(h) The reading aloud in class, particularly without additional comment or clarification, of lectures and materials which are available in printed form to students.

If it continues to be true that "differences [between military life and college education] are largely of degree," as Garland Downum asserts in the same issue of the *Bulletin* (and with whom I would decidedly take issue) it had better be kept a secret from this group of prospective students! In fact, some with whom I have advised are choosing to go to some other than a land-grant school in order to avoid any military atmosphere.

As to the incorporation of Army terms into your language, our advice is to take the previous writer's brief caution seriously. Army "slanguage" had better be left alone if it cannot be used naturally and effectively. Otherwise you will be reminding your students of unhappy experiences with certain green second lieutenants who tried to curry favor of enlisted men by "talking their language." (Or even, perhaps, of some college professors who, upon entering the service, tried to introduce profanity into their talk at appropriate intervals to make it appear they belonged!) It is the feeling of common sharing of experiences, we think, rather than the use of familiar expressions, which counts. So, for instance, before you talk about things being "snafu," be very certain you know how this term originated, and what it means.

In another connection it is mentioned that professors should avoid actions which would result in their being associated in the veteran's mind with his former top sergeant. If you do not recognize the possibility of this and similar transference of attitude, you will likely be considerably disconcerted by some veterans' apparently unfounded resentment toward demands made of them and toward you. Many are so "fed up" with the rigid discipline, with what they consider the senseless requirements of Army life that they rebel against any routine or scheduling or any action by persons in authority which reminds them of their previous experiences. If you can remember how a man's every activity in the Army has been managed for him, you may be more tolerant of his attempts to avoid restraint of any sort.

You will undoubtedly find some veterans exhibiting exactly the

opposite reaction. They have become so over-submissive to authority that they have lost all initiative and self-confidence. They will not be inclined to challenge any statement you make, and will be slow to assert themselves in discussions. For this type of student, assignments and instructions need to be very definite, at least at first.

The previous article might have been more specific about other needs in regaining study methods. For example, many a veteran will need guidance at first in re-establishing planning techniques, in budgeting his time. For one thing he may have lived so long under conditions of living from day to day, of having all plans and decisions made for him, that it is not surprising if he has forgotten how to plan for himself, or how to schedule his own activities most effectively. It must also be recognized that there are many activities in the Army (and in the other services also, I presume) which encourage habits of dawdling and time killing. A very usual experience, even in combat zones, is that of "hurry up and wait"—long periods of inactivity and boredom, again not conducive to systematic planning.

Most veterans do not ask for any special consideration, but I am confident that you will be well rewarded for the time and effort necessary to understand their specific needs and to adjust your instruction accordingly. If you do this, you need not worry about unfavorable comparison with Army instruction.

DUE PROCESS IN HIGHER EDUCATION¹

By DR SCOTT

University of Missouri

A discussion of this subject may well start with the proposition that the professor occupies a position of trust. Because of that fact society demands of him higher standards of conduct than it applies to citizens in general. University administrations should and in the long run must enforce those standards of conduct if the university is to meet its responsibilities effectively.

On their less important negative side these standards hold that the professor must not be guilty of disreputable conduct which will bring discredit upon him, his institution, and his profession. On their positive side they hold the professor responsible for the faithful discharge of the duties which make his position one of trust. He is expected to perform his duties with the utmost intelligence of which he is capable, with integrity and if need be courageously.

It is around the positive responsibilities of professors that the concept of academic freedom has developed. Too often we have thought of academic freedom as a personal or individual freedom of the professor. It is nothing of the sort. It is rather the highest duty, the most solemn obligation imposed by his position of trust. The professor is not free to teach the truth or not as suits his own convenience. The academic prophet with itching ears who teaches and publishes what he deems to be expedient rather than what he believes to be true is unworthy of the position he occupies. He betrays the trust which has been vested in him and he ought to be fired—but he isn't.

When we say that university administrations must in the long run enforce the standards of conduct set by society, we do not mean that the administration should follow the behest of each self-appointed critic or group of critics who may point a finger at a

¹ An adaptation of an address delivered at a meeting of the Chapter of the Association at the University of Missouri, October 16, 1945.

professor and say that he is an atheist and ought to be fired or he teaches evolution or he is a "Red" or that he teaches the single tax or merely that he is a dissolute wretch and ought to be kicked out.

An entirely proper and fearless discharge of his duties may bring down upon the professor the active hostility of selfish and narrow-minded but powerful economic groups or it may antagonize religious groups or run counter to the accepted mores of a given community.

The position of the professor is such that when under attack he is relatively defenseless so far as his own efforts are concerned. About all that he himself can do for safety is to take on the intellectual and social coloring of his environment. The interest of society in the functions which he performs requires that he be given a protection which he himself cannot properly provide.

In a broad sense academic freedom is a freedom of the educational process from interferences which would undermine its effectiveness. Interferences with that freedom often are much more insidious than the occasional crude attempts to have professors fired. I remember the remark of a professor of economics in a large eastern university. He said, "We seldom have any difficulty about academic freedom because we are very careful in the selection of men for our staff."

Of course no institution is to be condemned on the basis of a chance remark by one of its professors. And one might even defend the statement here quoted if it were properly elaborated. However, its obvious interpretation is that men are selected on the basis that their views and teaching will be sufficiently orthodox not to make trouble.

Any university administration which bases its selection of men on the requirement that their views be orthodox and inoffensive misses the most fundamental function of a university. Such an administration belongs in the class with the professor who teaches only what is expedient. It is assumed in this statement that the most fundamental function of a university is to serve as an instrument of cultural guidance.

Sometimes those who are connected with large, non-sectarian, endowed universities have argued that such institutions have the greatest freedom. It is true that they are freer from interferences

based on religious beliefs and popular mores than are publicly supported institutions. However, they are more sensitive to reactions against economic liberalism. On the whole, it seems to me, academic freedom in large endowed universities and in large state universities is about six of one and a half dozen of the other.

II

If the professor's position is one of trust, it follows that administrative positions in higher education also are positions of trust and to an even higher degree. Society looks to administrators to act for it in promoting the fundamental purposes of higher education. One of the details of their responsibility is to provide the professor with the protection which he himself cannot properly provide.

This is not the place for a comprehensive discussion of the problems of educational administration. However, we may in passing observe that, in spite of many examples of notable service, the administration of higher education is not one of the conspicuous successes of our society.

The one aspect of the problem of university administration with which we are concerned here is the administration or enforcement of the standards of conduct which society sets for professors. That task is a responsibility of university administration. The problem of administering a special set of standards for a limited professional group will differ in details but is the same problem fundamentally as that of administering standards for conduct in general.

When we turn to the broader field we find that in it our cultural group has made a very conspicuous success. We can appreciate the magnitude of that success when we contrast the activities of the Inquisition with the modern Anglo-Saxon administration of justice.

The key factor in the development of Anglo-Saxon justice has been due process. Due process is not a mechanical and inflexible thing. When law changes, as in the current development of administrative law, due process changes too. Due process is the process which makes possible a régime or government of law. Among Anglo-Saxon peoples the development of due process has

displaced personal government with its frequent accompaniment of dictatorial and star chamber action.

Of course, when we develop a régime of law we do not do away with the necessity for individual ability and responsibility. Indeed the administration of a régime of law calls for abler individuals with a sounder philosophy and greater insight than does the administration of more personal forms of government.

There is room for honest differences of opinion as to what sort of government we should have. There have always been those who believe in personal types of government but their views run counter to the prevailing trend in Anglo-Saxon countries.

When we turn to the special field of government over institutions of higher education, there is perhaps even more room for differences of opinion as to what type of government should prevail. However, there is logically room for only one view in the ranks of the American Association of University Professors. The Association is dedicated to the view that a government of principles or law is as suitable and as necessary to the administration of higher education as it is to the control of society at large. In the view of the Association only the development of such a régime of law can eliminate administration based upon the personal views of administrators or their whims and limitations or upon the expediencies of the moment. Any socially acceptable direction of higher education calls for the effective grounding of educational policy upon a régime of law.

The activities of the Association have been so taken up with specific controversies and critical pronouncements that many even in the organization itself have failed to appreciate its positive and constructive objectives. Its whole program can be best summarized by saying that it is attempting to establish due process in the administration of higher education. Its principles and procedures dealing with freedom and tenure all point to that end. And the justification of its efforts lies in the belief that through the development of due process and a regime of law in the administration of higher education the interests of society will be best served.

I do not want to leave the impression that due process in higher education is merely a subordinate application of the due process which we have developed at so much cost in the field of formal law.

Just now it is the fashion to argue that the atomic bomb makes it necessary for us to refashion our whole scheme of international relations. As a matter of fact the atomic bomb is only a spectacular symbol. We have long known that the impact of modern scientific and technical knowledge upon our traditional society was slowly forcing its reconstruction. The gloomy British prelate who proposed a prolonged scientific holiday as a means of meeting the crisis missed entirely the nature of the change which is taking place. Our salvation lies in more knowledge, not less; and the potential services of higher education are imperative if we are to weather the crisis. For this reason the development of due process in higher education is of critical social importance. In fact the conclusion which is implicit in the activities of the American Association of University Professors is that due process in higher education is the most strategic form of due process.

III

Since we have paid our respects to both professors and administrators we should not slight boards of control. Any discussion of the problem of establishing a régime of law in the administration of higher education would be quite unrealistic if it left them out.

Members of boards of control typically come to university government from the outside. In an age of professionals, specialists, and experts they decidedly are amateurs. It would be wholly unreasonable to expect boards of control to take the lead in working out a régime of law for the administration of higher education. It is highly unfortunate that we have developed a form of university government which effectively divorces authority and leadership. The presidency of a large modern university is much too slender and too weak a bond to tie together effectively the intellectual and cultural leadership which resides in the faculty and the authority which resides in the board.

Perhaps the most common fault of boards is a tendency to lean too heavily upon expediency. Their thinking is too easily colored by the fact that they may have an eye upon the receipt of large gifts from wealthy alumni or upon the receipt of generous appropriations from a state legislature. Nevertheless, the board which

sacrifices due process to expediency belongs in the class with the professor who teaches only what is expedient and the administrator who selects only professors with safe and orthodox views. But there is one difference. Boards of control are much more likely to get into the class unwittingly than are professors and administrators.

In view of the type of university government which we of the present generation have inherited, it would be nothing short of miraculous if we had made a conspicuous success of the administration of higher education.

It should not be necessary to point out that these remarks do not cast the slightest personal reflection upon the public-spirited and self-sacrificing individuals who typically make up boards of control.

IV

It has sometimes been charged that Committee A reports contain too much irrelevant material. Doubtless this has been true in some cases. It is the duty of a university administration to determine whether or not a professor has violated the rules of conduct which are implicit in his position. The American Association of University Professors comes into a case not to try the individual or individuals involved but to check the action against them and to determine whether or not it meets the test of due process. Other things are in a sense beside the point and gratuitous.

That last statement calls for some amplification. In order to make its qualification clear we may well turn again to the field of formal law.

The United States Supreme Court is a body which decides cases which are brought before it. It could do that by taking a vote and announcing only the decision approved by a majority of the justices. However, it does much more than that. It publishes reasoned opinions of dissenting justices as well as those approved by a majority of the court. It puts ideas and principles above the personalities of the judges. Its divergent opinions often express different social philosophies. The practice of the court recognizes the fact that its decisions have political, social, and economic signifi-

cance. Many of its pronouncements might be considered gratuitous if tested by a strictly legalistic viewpoint. However, if its outlook had been one of a narrow legalism it could not possibly have acquired the prestige which it now enjoys.

The American Association of University Professors started from scratch within the active life of many of its present members. It had no established position. It had to make its way against administrative hostility and professorial indifference. It dealt with the crude raw material of bad academic relations and utilized ordinary professors who were for the purpose drawn out of the jobs for which they were trained and in which they were skilled. If its committee reports had been mere technical statements of principles and legalistic judgments pronounced against offending administrations, the Association would never have survived.

In order for the Association to make a place for itself, it was necessary for those reports to contain some human interest, drama and even a dash of the detective mystery story, all woven around a nucleus of fundamental principles. Those reports are not to be judged on the basis of picayunish criticisms or the detailed crudities which were inevitable in many reports, especially in the earlier period. They are to be judged rather on the basis of their over-all results. Through Committee A and its subordinate investigating committees, the Association is building a line of cases which will shape effectively the evolution of due process in the administration of higher education. The success of that project is a matter of critical importance not only for the Association and higher education but also for society at large.

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

A report by Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure of the American Association of University Professors to the Council of the Association. Presented on June 8, 1946 at a meeting of the Council held in Chicago, Illinois.

In a report, "Academic Freedom and Tenure at The University of Texas," published in the Winter, 1944 issue of the *Bulletin* of the Association, and in a report to the Council of the Association at its meeting in May, 1945, concerning which a statement was published in the Autumn, 1945 issue of the *Bulletin*, the members of the Council and of the Association were informed of a situation at The University of Texas under observation and investigation by the Association's Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure. This situation, as stated in these previous reports, was precipitated by dismissals and threats of dismissals of members of the Faculty of The University of Texas by the institution's Board of Regents, contrary to the recommendations of the president, the vice-president, the deans, and the department chairmen concerned, and by the subsequent summary dismissal of Dr. Homer P. Rainey from the presidency of the University. These previous reports indicate the efforts made by Committee A to clarify the facts of this situation and to bring about amicable adjustments in keeping with the principles of academic freedom and tenure and of faculty-administration relationships generally observed in accredited institutions.

Most of the evidence with reference to the situation at The University of Texas is documented: in special publications, in press releases, in correspondence released to the press, in transcripts of testimony, and through other media. Notable among these is the testimony adduced in the investigation conducted by the Texas Senate Committee on Education late in November, 1944. Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure has this evidence and has given it careful consideration. In addition to this evidence Committee A has evidence secured in conferences of representa-

tives of the Association with the Board of Regents of the University, with members of the Faculty of the University and with others directly concerned, and in correspondence with many persons involved in or concerned with the situation. The record of this situation is a long one, and the materials relating thereto voluminous. To present but a digest of what has been said and written with reference to the situation at The University of Texas, together with an analysis of the evidence, would require hundreds of pages. Whether the preparation of such a report is necessary the Committee has not yet determined.

II

Dr. Rainey was dismissed from the presidency on November 1, 1944. Following this action by the Board of Regents three members of the Board resigned, among them the then Chairman of the Board, Mr. John H. Bickett, Jr. To fill these three vacancies and another vacancy created by death, the Governor late in 1944 appointed four new members. One of these new members, Mr. Dudley K. Woodward, was subsequently elected Chairman of the Board.

It was the hope of Committee A that the Board of Regents of The University of Texas as thus reconstituted would undertake a judicious review of the facts of the total situation at the University. This the Board did not do. The first meeting of the Board following the appointment of three of the four new members was held on January 26, 1945. At this time the appointments of the new members had not been confirmed by the State Senate. At this meeting the Board was presented with many requests for the reinstatement of Dr. Rainey, among them one that had been authorized by an overwhelming majority of the Faculty of the University. These requests were ignored. At this meeting Mr. Woodward presented a lengthy statement in which he indicated that he personally had made an investigation of the total situation and in which he gave his reasons for opposing Dr. Rainey's "election to the presidency of the University." Mr. Woodward spoke for approximately four hours. Following Mr. Woodward's statement a vote was taken by the Board which, as reported by Mr. Woodward, "resulted in six votes against and one vote in favor of

the election of Dr. Rainey as President of The University of Texas." Later Mr. Woodward released in mimeographed form the substance of the statement he had made at this meeting of the Board. The mimeographed statement is a document of fifteen single-spaced typewritten pages of legal size and contains approximately 13,000 words. This document, at Mr. Woodward's request, was distributed to the members of the Forty-ninth Legislature of Texas and to the Faculty of The University of Texas, and was circulated among college and university administrative officers and faculties throughout the country.

Mr. Woodward began his statement by a discussion of the legal concepts of the principal-agent and master-servant relationships, relationships which he characterized as of high estate "which no man need scorn to occupy." The Scriptures, he pointed out, sanctify these relationships in the words, "Well done, thou good and faithful servant." Mr. Woodward then spoke of Dr. Rainey's qualifications for the presidency of The University of Texas in the light of his qualifications to act as the agent or servant of the Board of Regents. In this connection he referred to Dr. Rainey's work as President of Bucknell University from 1931 to 1935. To ascertain the facts, Mr. Woodward said, "I did not go through the channels ordinarily familiar to lawyers; that is banks, insurance companies, and other reporting agencies. . . . I went through academic channels. . . . I was fortunate enough to learn the name of a man supposed to be thoroughly conversant with the affairs of Bucknell University and with Dr. Rainey's tenure, by reason of the fact that he was himself a graduate of Bucknell University, had educated eight of his eleven children there, and had served upon its Board of Trustees for more than twenty-five years."

Mr. Woodward then presented passages from a letter dated January 22, 1945, from this unnamed member of the Board of Trustees of Bucknell University. The letter states that the writer did not recall any controversies between Dr. Rainey and the Board of Trustees of Bucknell University, but did recall that Dr. Rainey had incurred some opposition within the Faculty and "also from friends of the College. . ." by the introduction of survey courses "rather suddenly and to a large extent." The writer also indicated that he thought Dr. Rainey took too much advice from a

"special or inner council of professors" and failed to keep closely enough in touch with the Faculty as a whole.

The name of the author of this letter was revealed only to a committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which was then investigating The University of Texas situation and the members of which, at Mr. Woodward's invitation, were present at the meeting of the Board of January 26. The writer of this letter has subsequently been identified as a Federal Judge of the Middle District of Pennsylvania, who during the year preceding Mr. Woodward's statement had been under Grand Jury investigation for alleged improper conduct on the Bench and who subsequently resigned his judgeship before the completion of the investigation. Later, on September 11, 1945, this Judge was indicted "on charges of conspiring to obstruct justice and defrauding the government." This Judge had been a member of the Board of Trustees of Bucknell University, but his membership had been terminated in June, 1944, by action of his colleagues on the Board.

In speaking of the charges that had been made by Dr. Rainey that the Board of Regents of the University had sought to repress freedom of teaching and of research, and in speaking of the dismissals of members of the Faculty by the Board and of the threats of dismissals of members of the Faculty, Mr. Woodward emphasized the length of time that had elapsed since the occurrence of these incidents, with the reservation frequently stated that he was not seeking to pass judgment on the merits of the issues involved in these incidents. In concluding his statement Mr. Woodward said that he had never met Dr. Rainey "and, of course, . . . could have no bias in his favor or prejudice against him," but that he had reached the conclusion that Dr. Rainey had no further possible usefulness to the University and should, therefore, not be reinstated to the presidency.

In the opinion of Committee A little in Mr. Woodward's statement was directed to the merits of the situation at The University of Texas. Most of the statement is irrelevant as regards the clarification of facts with a view to reaching a just decision.

A short while before Mr. Woodward presented the excerpts from the letter of the Federal Judge referred to above, there appeared an

alumni newsletter sent from the Librarian's Office of the Medical School of The University of Texas in Galveston, which spoke adversely of Dr. Rainey's work as President of Bucknell University. In this newsletter there was this question: "Wasn't this man also relieved of his similar position at Bucknell University for like insubordination and by pressure from the Alumni quarter?" The evidence indicates that the information on which this newsletter was based came from the author of the letter quoted by Mr. Woodward to the Board of Regents at its meeting on January 26. Apropos of this alumni newsletter Dr. Arnaud C. Marts, who was a member of the Board of Trustees of Bucknell University during the entire time Dr. Rainey was President of that institution and who succeeded Dr. Rainey as President of Bucknell University, wrote the following letter to a former student of The University of Texas under date of January 24, 1945:

My attention has just been called to an Alumni Letter from the School of Medicine dated January, 1945, which refers to President Rainey's relationships at Bucknell University in these words: "Wasn't this man also relieved of his similar post at Bucknell University for like insubordination and by pressure from the alumni quarter?" The answer to this question is an emphatic "No!"

The circumstances surrounding President Rainey's resignation are as follows: In the summer of 1935 he was approached by Dr. George Zook, President of the American Council of Education, to inquire if he could be induced to accept the position of Director of the American Youth Commission for a period of five years. The American Council had just received a large appropriation from one of the Rockefeller Foundations for the purpose of making a definitive study of the educational problems of American youth, which study, and a compilation of the report based thereon, was to occupy a period of five years, and Dr. Zook had created the American Youth Commission composed of representative and well-known citizens of the nation to make this study. In seeking the best man in the United States as the Executive Director of the Commission, they turned to Bucknell's then President, Dr. Homer P. Rainey. It was an opportunity which any young educator could not turn down. Dr. Rainey presented the situation to the Trustees of Bucknell University and asked their advice and stated that he would like to accept the offer. The Trustees therefore permitted him to resign for this purpose.

Dr. Rainey remained as President of Bucknell until after the opening of college in September, and when his resignation became

effective in October of 1935 he was elected a member of the Board of Trustees of Bucknell University for the usual term of five years, and until he was later called to The University of Texas, where his geographical separation made it impractical for him to attend meetings of the Board of Trustees, he was an active and highly respected member of our Board of Trustees, and was consulted frequently by his successor in regard to administrative and educational problems.

You are free to use this statement in reference to Dr. Rainey's relationship with Bucknell University in any way you desire.

III

Although the Board of Regents of The University of Texas, as reconstituted following Dr. Rainey's dismissal, declined to make a judicious review of the evidence relating to Dr. Rainey, it did subsequently review the evidence relating to the members of the teaching faculty of the University who had been dismissed by the Board during Dr. Rainey's administration and has reinstated several of them, some with promotion in rank and salary. These reinstatements are definite reversals of actions of the Board as constituted at the time of Dr. Rainey's dismissal. These actions would seem to indicate that the majority of the Board as now constituted regards these previous dismissals as unjustified. The reinstatements of the teachers previously dismissed are heartening to all who are interested in the principles of academic freedom and tenure, and Committee A would like to believe that they evidence support of the principles of academic freedom and tenure. In the light of the facts of the total situation, however, the Committee doubts that such a conclusion is warranted. The Committee is inclined to believe that these reinstatements were motivated by considerations of expediency and by a desire to becloud the issues with reference to Dr. Rainey. In this connection it should be noted that, in the recent reinstatement of one teacher, coercion and other administrative irregularities have been alleged. Clarification of the facts of this reinstatement is being sought.

When Dr. Rainey accepted the presidency of The University of Texas, he also accepted appointment as Professor of Education in the University. This arrangement he made a condition to his acceptance of the presidency of the University. The Board of

Regents met Dr. Rainey's condition and appointed him President of the University and Professor of Education. Following Dr. Rainey's dismissal from the presidency the Board declined to honor his professorship. This the Board did by the device of not providing a salary for his professorship, and by stipulating that it was to be, "Without duties or responsibilities of any character whatsoever." This action was tantamount to a dismissal; it was a dismissal without assignment of cause and without provision for a hearing, as required by good academic practice generally observed in accredited institutions.

The Board of Regents of The University of Texas alleges that Dr. Rainey made certain mistakes in administration and that he was dismissed because of these mistakes. In this connection reference is made to difficulties in the Medical School of the University. The Medical School of The University of Texas, which is located in Galveston, has for years presented many and serious difficulties, financial and otherwise. Prior to Dr. Rainey's acceptance of the presidency of the University, the Board of Regents had begun a reorganization of the Medical School and had appointed a new Dean (November, 1938). Dr. Rainey began his duties as President of the University ten months later (September, 1939). As President it became his duty to support the plans and the policies for the Medical School that had been determined by the Board of Regents. Among these was the plan to enlarge the Faculty by the appointment of more full-time teachers. In the beginning of Dr. Rainey's administration there were no disagreements between him and the Board of Regents concerning the plans and policies that were to be followed with reference to the Medical School. Subsequently there were complaints from members of the Faculty of the Medical School concerning the work of the Dean. It was alleged by some members of the Faculty that the Dean was arbitrary in his relationships with the Faculty. With reference to these allegations the record shows that there were new appointments to the Faculty of the Medical School, that there were some changes in departmental organization, which were not viewed with favor by some members of the Faculty, but that there were no dismissals of members of the Faculty who were entitled to continuous tenure.

On August 1, 1942, the Board of Regents of the University summarily dismissed the Dean from the deanship and from the professorship to which he had been appointed by the Board in November, 1938. This dismissal was without assignment of cause and without a hearing. Dr. Rainey protested this arbitrary action on the part of the Board. Shortly thereafter a new Dean of the Medical School was appointed by the Board of Regents without consultation with Dr. Rainey.

With reference to the difficulties in the Medical School, the evidence indicates that it was not until Dr. Rainey had become *persona non grata* to certain members of the Board of Regents, because of his opposition to their attempts to repress freedom of teaching and research, that there were any manifestations of differences of opinion between him and the Board concerning the plans and policies for the Medical School. At that juncture certain members of the Board sought to give the impression that Dr. Rainey had been responsible for the initiation of the plans and policies for the Medical School concerning which there had been complaints. Later Dr. Rainey did make certain recommendations concerning the Medical School, among them that it be moved from Galveston to Austin. This latter recommendation was opposed vigorously by influential persons in Galveston and by a majority of the Board.

Committee A has given careful consideration to the testimony and other data relating to the difficulties in the Medical School of The University of Texas and finds nothing in the record which indicates that these difficulties motivated the decision of the Board of Regents to dismiss Dr. Rainey. The Committee believes that Dr. Rainey would have been dismissed even though there had been no difficulties in connection with the Medical School and that no useful purpose would be served by presenting a detailed report of the vicissitudes of the Medical School.

IV

In the opinion of Committee A Dr. Rainey was not dismissed because of mistakes in administration, unless his opposition to dictation by members of the Board of Regents concerning matters relating to teaching and research be regarded as a mistake of ad-

ministration. And it was so regarded by the Board of Regents of The University of Texas. It is the considered judgment of Committee A that Dr. Rainey was dismissed because he refused to yield to pressures by the Board concerning teaching and research and, also, because of his philosophy of freedom in education. The Committee believes that if Dr. Rainey had not opposed the attempts at repression on the part of members of the Board, which included an attempt to destroy tenure at the University, his own position as President would have remained secure, but that there would have been many dismissals from the Faculty.

When representatives of the Association conferred with the Board of Regents of The University of Texas on October 30, 1944, in an executive session at the close of an all-day public meeting, members of the Board of Regents characterized certain members of the Faculty of the University as "unfit" to teach the youth of Texas because of their views on economic, social, political, and educational questions. These Regents made it unmistakably clear that it was their wish to dismiss the teachers thus named and suggested that the Association should cooperate with the Board in effectuating their dismissals. One member of the Faculty designated as undesirable is a particularly able and distinguished professor. His name was introduced into the discussion by a Regent with the question, "What are we going to do with Professor X? He loves it here in Texas." When questioned by a representative of the Association as to what this Regent would like to do with Professor X, the Regent replied, "Fire him!" Committee A is of the opinion that the members of the Faculty of the University thus named are among the ablest of the institution's Faculty and that they are all honorable and patriotic citizens. Committee A is also of the opinion that these teachers would have been dismissed if Dr. Rainey had been a pliable president and if the American Association of University Professors and other educational organizations had not intervened.

Among the criteria for judging whether a college or university president is a good administrator is the way he is regarded by the institution's Faculty. If the morale of the Faculty is good, it is reasonable to conclude that the institution's president is aware of the nature and purposes of an educational institution and is seek-

ing to have these purposes furthered. The morale of the Faculty of The University of Texas during Dr. Rainey's administration was high, very high. This does not mean that all the members of the Faculty of the University were in agreement with everything that Dr. Rainey did. It does mean, however, that Dr. Rainey's administration created an atmosphere conducive to good teaching and research and inspired confidence on the part of the members of the Faculty. Evidence of this is found in the fact that at the time of Dr. Rainey's dismissal the Faculty of the University was almost unanimous in requesting his reinstatement. Such unanimity on the part of the Faculty of a university in seeking the continuance in office of the institution's president is not usual. Professors, however, desire tranquillity, and the long and disquieting controversy that has ensued since Dr. Rainey's dismissal has disturbed many members of the Faculty, with the result that some of them have been in the mood to wish the whole controversy forgotten and a new start made on the basis of conditions which they are told are to be satisfactory. But until it became evident that the Board of Regents was determined not to reinstate Dr. Rainey, the Faculty was almost unanimous in seeking his reinstatement. No finer testimonial could be given any university president.

Criticism has been directed at Dr. Rainey because he made public his difficulties with the Board of Regents. This he did in a report to the Faculty, which he later released to the press. On this point the Committee wishes to comment briefly. Dr. Rainey believes in academic freedom. He believes that what constitutes a proper exercise of academic freedom is a matter for the determination of an institution's administrative officers and Faculty. Dr. Rainey also believes that the public has an interest in academic freedom and that without academic freedom an educational institution cannot fulfill its obligation to its students and to the public. Dr. Rainey's convictions in these matters are in accord with the philosophy of the American Association of University Professors. In the opinion of Committee A a university president who yields to pressures designed to weaken or destroy academic freedom is unfit to hold his significant position. The Committee believes, also, that a university president who resists

efforts to weaken or destroy academic freedom and who seeks clarification of the issues involved in cases of attempts to repress freedom, with a view to bringing about adjustments in accordance with the principles of academic freedom generally observed by the administrations of institutions of higher education, should have the gratitude and the support of the profession and of the public. For his efforts in behalf of academic freedom at The University of Texas, Dr. Rainey has earned the gratitude of our profession and of the friends of education throughout the country.

V

In the light of the facts of the situation at The University of Texas as stated in this report and in two previous reports published in the *Bulletin* of the Association, the Committee recommends that conditions at The University of Texas with reference to academic freedom and tenure and with reference to the relationship of the Board of Regents of the University to the administrative officers and the Faculty of the University be kept under observation, that later by a committee visit or otherwise the Association ascertain whether these conditions have become satisfactory, and that in the meantime the Administration of the University be placed on the Association's list of Censured Administrations.

Apropos of this situation the Faculty of The University of Texas is to be commended for its courage and tenacity in opposing systematic, persistent, and continuous attempts by a politically dominant group to impose its social and educational views upon the University.

Approved by Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure.

EDWARD C. KIRKLAND, *Chairman*

Addendum

Following a full discussion of the recommendation of Committee A quoted above, the Council of the Association by unanimous vote placed the Administration of The University of Texas on the Association's list of Censured Administrations. The Council in this instance functioned pursuant to Sections 1 and 3 of Article X of the

Constitution of the Association in lieu of the Annual Meeting of the Association.

EDWARD C. KIRKLAND, *Chairman*

Personnel of Committee A on Academic Freedom and Tenure: William E. Britton (Law), University of Illinois; Elliott E. Cheatham (Law), Columbia University; Thomas D. Cope (Physics), University of Pennsylvania; F. S. Deibler (Economics), Northwestern University; F. L. Griffin (Mathematics), Reed College; Ralph E. Himstead (Law), Association's Secretariat; A. M. Kidd (Law), University of California; E. C. Kirkland (History), Bowdoin College, *Chairman*; W. T. Laprade (History), Duke University; Robert P. Ludlum (History), Association's Secretariat; J. M. Maguire (Law), Harvard University; S. A. Mitchell (Astronomy), University of Virginia; DR Scott (Economics), University of Missouri; George Pope Shannon (English), University of Alabama; John Q. Stewart (Physics), Princeton University; R. C. Tolman (Physics), California Institute of Technology; Laura A. White (History), University of Wyoming; and Quincy Wright (International Law), University of Chicago.

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited either upon the whole of the institution or upon the faculty but specifically upon its present administration. The term "administration" includes the administrative officers and the governing board of the institution. This censure does not affect the eligibility of nonmembers for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the date of censuring are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations:

Adelphi College, Garden City, New York (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 494-517)	December, 1941
John B. Stetson University, De Land, Florida (October, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 377-399)	December, 1939
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 478-493)	December, 1941
Memphis State College, Memphis, Tennessee (October, 1943 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 550-580)	April, 1944
University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri (Summer, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 278-315)	June, 1946
West Chester State Teachers College West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 44-72)	December, 1939
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (March, 1935 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 224-266)	December, 1935
St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri (December, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 514-535)	December, 1939
State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee (December, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 662-677)	May, 1943
University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee (June, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 310-319)	December, 1939
University of Texas, Austin, Texas (Winter, 1944 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 462-465; Autumn, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 462-465; Summer, 1946 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 374-385)	June, 1946
Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington (October, 1940 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 471-475)	December, 1940
Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina (April, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 173-196)	May, 1943

MEMBERSHIP

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership in the Association is by the Committee on Admission of Members upon nomination by one Active Member. Election takes place thirty days after the name of the nominee has been published in the *Bulletin*. The membership year in the Association is the calendar year (January 1 through December 31). The membership of nominees whose nominations are received before July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the current year. The membership of nominees whose nominations are received after July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the following year unless the nominee requests that his membership become effective as of January 1 of the current year.

The classes and conditions of membership are as follows:

Active. A person is eligible for election to Active membership if he holds a position of teaching or research with the rank of instructor or higher in an institution on the Association's eligible list, provided his work consists of at least half-time teaching or research. Annual dues are \$4.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Junior. Junior membership is open to persons who are, or within the past five years have been, graduate students in eligible institutions and who are not eligible for Active membership. Junior Members are transferred to Active membership as soon as they become eligible. Annual dues are \$3.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Associate. Associate membership is not an elective membership. Active and Junior Members whose work becomes primarily administrative are transferred to Associate membership. Annual dues are \$3.00, including subscription to the *Bulletin*.

Emeritus. Any member retiring for age from a position in teaching or research may be transferred to Emeritus membership. Emeritus Members are exempt from dues. They may continue to receive the *Bulletin* at a special rate of \$1.00 a year.

Continuing Eligibility. Change of occupation or transfer to an institution not on the Association's eligible list does not affect eligibility for continuance of membership.

Interruption or Termination of Membership. Interruption or termination of membership requires notification to the Association's Washington office. In the absence of such notice, membership continues with receipt of the *Bulletin* for one calendar year during which time there is an obligation to pay dues.

Nominations for Membership

The following 1055 nominations for Active membership and 12 nominations for Junior membership are printed as provided by the Constitution. In accordance with action by the Council, objections to any nominee may be addressed to the General Secretary, who will in turn transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members if received within thirty days after this publication. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee any question concerning the technical eligibility of the nominee for membership as provided in the Constitution.

The Committee on Admission of Members consists of Professors Ella Lonn, Goucher College, *Chairman*; B. W. Kunkel, Lafayette College; A. Richards, University of Oklahoma; R. H. Shryock, University of Pennsylvania; W. O. Sypherd, University of Delaware; and F. J. Tschan, Pennsylvania State College.

Active

University of Akron, Margaret E. Mauch; Alabama State Teachers College (Jacksonville), Eli J. Landers, Walter A. Mason, Ernest Stone; University of Alabama, Warren G. Keith, John R. Morton, Harold F. Schaeffer; University of Alaska, Earl H. Beistline, Jewell T. Dennison; University of Arizona, Andreas S. Andersen, Lucy Barton, James M. Beebe, Sidney B. Brown, Mary E. Caldwell, Russell Ewing, Elizabeth H. Gad, Harry T. Getty, R. M. Howard, Wanda S. Hunter, Eleanor B. Johnson, Paul D. Jose, Rollin Pease, Desmond S. Powell, Frank D. Robertson, Francis A. Roy, James P. Scott, Zela M. Sougey, Ethel M. Thompson, Charles F. Wallraff; University of

Arkansas, Kyle Engler, Orville J. Hall, John C. Hamilton, Trimble R. Hedges, Forrest D. Kellogg, Elizabeth A. Ludwig, Robert L. Morris, J. Norman Payne, Robert C. Wray; **University of Arkansas (Medical School)**; Louis E. Moses, Ralph E. Rowen; **Augustana College**, Lucien White; **Bates College**, Joseph D'Alfonso; **Baylor University**, Elma B. Cranfill, S. E. Cranfill, Lois S. Douglas, Norman L. Roberts, E. Bruce Thompson; **Berea College**, Ray Orr; **Boston University**, Richard H. Bailes, Warren E. Lux, Herbert B. Myron, Jr., Ruth Setterberg; **Bowling Green State University**, Harold T. Hamre, Anne R. King, Herbert E. Muntz; **Brooklyn College**, Frances P. Hoffman, Wilhelmina E. Jacobson, Marian M. Manico, Louise Rietz, Loretta W. Smith; **Brown University**, Guy H. Dodge; **Bucknell University**, Robert D. Henderson, Sidney J. Kelly, Harriet A. Love, Mary B. MacDonald; **University of Buffalo**, Barton Bean, John A. Beane, Charles Beyer, Wilma Brosher, N. Cantor, Richard M. Drake, George Goldfinger, Jennie S. Graham, John W. Greenwood, Elizabeth M. Hanson, A. Margaret Larsen, Paul E. Mohn, Laurence A. Pape, J. Max Patrick, Lyle W. Phillips, Anne W. Sengbusch, Oscar A. Silverman, Clarence E. Smith, Wilbert H. Spencer, Joseph B. Sprowls; **University of California**, Robert A. Nisbet, James H. Shideler, Walter G. Urban; **University of California (Los Angeles)**, Cordell Durrell, Charles Speroni; **University of California (Santa Barbara)**, Walter E. Conrad, Robert E. Robinson; **Capital University**, J. Garber Drushal, Carl F. Reuss; **Carnegie Institute of Technology**, Harry P. Hale, William J. Leivo, Talbot Pearson, Calvin M. Wiley; **Case School of Applied Science**, Paul E. Guenther; **Catholic University of America**, Rudolf Allers, Margaret J. Bates, Brendan F. Brown, Edward Cain, Josephine McG. Callan, Agnes A. Dix, Myron W. Getchell, Loretta E. Heidgerken, C. J. Nuesse; **Cedar Crest College**, Charles J. Bornman, Wilbur W. Hollman, Luise A. Lenel, Charles H. Rominger, John A. Tallmadge; **Centenary College of Louisiana**, Roscoe Stinetorf; **Christian College**, Gloria Cerrato; **University of Cincinnati**, Julian F. Bechtold, Cedric G. Boulter, Robert M. Delcamp, Louis F. Doty, Frances Kimbrough, James E. O'Connell, Elbert B. Ruth, Leon Schiff, Vinton E. Siler, Alfred A. Tytell, Alphonse R. Vonderahe; **The City College (New York)**, Percy M. Apfelbaum, Frank Brescia, Cecilie Froehlich, Agnes C. Mulligan, Henry J. Plock, Leonard P. Sayles, Seymour Travers, Joseph R. Weiss, Louis Wolchonok; **The City College (Commerce Center)**, Mary P. O'Donnell; **Claremont College**, Hollis P. Allen; **Clemson College**, William H. Milner; **Coker College**, Ben Ingram; **University of Colorado**, Dorothy I. Anderson; **Columbia University**, Dorothy W. Curtiss, Margaret Hutchins, Miriam D. Tompkins; **Cornell University**, Henry H. Adams, Wilson B. Gragg; **Denison University**, William C. Biel, Sara L. Houston, Richard V. Morrissey, Elizabeth Strickland; **University of Denver**, Charles E. Meyers; **De Paul University**, Walter Maneikis, John B. Murphy; **DePauw University**, Janet Schlicher, Paul A. Thomas, Van Denman Thompson, Ruth Zitzlaff; **Dickinson College**, Whitfield J. Bell, Jr., John C. Hepler, Benjamin D. James, Roy R. Kuebler, Jr., Donald R. Morrison, Ralph Schecter, Mary B. Taintor, Russell I. Thompson, Wellman J. Warner; **Drake University**, Seth W. Slaughter; **Duke University**, S. Thomas Amore, Howard

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Junior

George Washington University, Ralph H. Lane; New York University, C. Conrad Franchino; Princeton University, Pierre E. Szamek; University of Southern California, Earl C. Bolton, Anna L. Greer, Ralph B. Smith, Jr., Clarence H. Vetterli; University of Wisconsin, Margaret York; Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, Austin C. Cleveland (Ed.D., Stanford University), Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; Ben Harnly (Graduate Work, Middlebury College), Staunton, Virginia; Charles A. McAnulla (M.A., Fordham University), Brooklyn, New York; Raymond F. Wallace (M.B.A., University of Texas), Houston, Texas.

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Active (93)

Alabama State Teachers College (Jacksonville), Reuben Self; University of Alabama, Sarah Fleming; University of Arizona, Arthur R. Kemmerer, Hartley D. Snyder, Napoleon J. Tremblay; Boston University, J. Wendell Yeo; Bowling Green State University, Alma J. Payne; University of California, Charles G. Fallis, Garrett Hardin; Catholic University of America, Viola R. Reed; University of Colorado, Elliot Evans; University of Illinois, Harvey W. Huegy, Gwladys Spencer; Indiana State Teachers College, Mary A. Banks, Ollis G. Jamison; Iowa State College, Lauren K. Soth; John Carroll University, Herbert H. Petit; University of Kansas, Donald C. Brodie, Robert M. Dreyer, Ivan M. Farmer; University of Kansas City, F. L. Black; Kent State University, W. Leslie Garnett, Marcelline J. Plescher; Lawrence College, Emil Heuser; Louisiana State University, Arthur G. Keller; Loyola University (Illinois), John W. Hawekotte; Michigan State College, Wilma Bennett; University of Michigan, Theodore C. Kramer, Burke Shartel; Middlebury College, John T. Andrews, Donald H. Ballou, Douglas Beers, Léa Binand, Claude L. Bourcier, Arthur M. Brown, Mischa H. Fayer, Ida V. Gibson, Samuel Guarnaccia, Arthur K. D. Healy, Emilia L'Hommedieu, William F. Madden, Maxine J. Shurtz, Rex N. Webster; Minnesota State Teachers College (Winona), Blanche A. Graff, Ella M. Murphy, Ruth H. Richards, Jean Talbot; Mississippi State College, John J. MacAllister; Nebraska State Teachers College (Kearney), Helen R. Istas; New York State Teachers College (Buffalo), Louis J. Callan, Stanley A. Czurlis, Beryl E. Frech; New York University, Isidor Greenwald; Pennsylvania State College, Clarence F. Glessner; Phoenix Junior College, Elizabeth Campbell; University of Puerto Rico, Agustín Velez Collazo; Queens College (New York), Fred W. Boege, Anthony Tudisco; Smith College, Virginia F. Prettyman, Mary A. Tibbetts; University of Southern California, Fay G. Adams, Gerald Bense, Francis Christensen, F. Marion Clarke, Aura D. Hardison, William P. Harrison, Antonio Heras, Wayne K. Wilmarth, Mabel Woodworth; Syracuse University, Joseph H. Morrow, Robert L. Willard; University of Tennessee, Richard D. Present;

Texas College of Arts and Industries, Ruth E. Bell, Alfred F. Gross; Texas State College for Women, Mary A. Hufford; East Texas State Teachers College, Rex Johnston; Tufts College, Genevieve Birk; United States Naval Academy, Allen E. Vivell; University of Utah, Max W. Lund; University of Virginia, William J. Barron, Fredson Bowers, Richard C. Garlick, Jr., Frank S. Kaulback, Jr., George B. Pace, George H. Reese, B. F. Dewees Runk, Archibald B. Shepperson, James Scott, Stephen D. Tuttle; State College of Washington, Bernard Fried; Wellesley College, Agnes A. Abbot; Western Reserve University, Mary I. Horan; Willamette University, James E. Simpson.

Junior (2)

University of Southern California, Mary W. Coulter; Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, Ulysses Young (M.A., University of Pennsylvania), Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Members Elected

The Committee on Admissions of Members announces the election of 827 Active and 14 Junior Members as follows:

Active

University of Akron, Maud Doherty, Sigurd Jorgensen; Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Clarence Leckey; University of Alabama, Edward F. Richards, Paul Siegel, J. Henry Walker; University of Alaska, Robert P. Isaac, Paul McComas; Albion College, Conway Peters; Albright College, Harley P. Tripp; Alfred University, Henry A. Nord; Arizona State College at Tempe, George M. Bateman, Arnold Bullock, Harry B. Harelson, E. John Hilkert, Hazel H. Quaid, Jessie M. Rannells, Dorothy F. Robinson, Dorothy C. Schilling, Irma Wilson; University of Arizona, Frances Gillmor; University of Arkansas, Merton S. Zahrt; Ball State Teachers College, Alpha Braunwarth, Beulah Rundle; Baylor University, Storm Bull, M. L. Fergeson, Mary H. Hinton, George C. Humphrey, Jane P. Osborn; Bennington College, Eva C. Wunderlich; Berea College, Willard N. Hogan; Boston University, Erich G. Budde, Edward R. Collier, Lowell V. Coulter, Leslie W. Irwin, Eleanor Kitchin, Dorothy E. Koch, Adelaide L. McGarrett, Duncan E. Macdonald, Robert L. Peel, Norwood K. Schaffer, Gretchen Schuyler, T. Noel Stern; Bowling Green State University, Iris Andrews, Doris W. Dimick, Sam P. Durrance, Jr., Lowry B. Karnes, Evelyn Kenesson, Arlene S. Kirkland, Mairbeth Kitt, John W. Lewis, Sidney Mittler, Clyde C. Parker, Norman Preble, Walter S. Sanderlin, Margaret G. Westerhof, Audrey K. Wilder, Charles W. Young; Briarcliff Junior College, George B. Fowler; Brooklyn College, Gabriel A. Almond, Verne H. Booth, La Verne Buckton, Irving A. Kaye, Esther L. Levine, Catherine Reigart, Ossa R. Sowers, Frederick L. Westover; Brown University, C. Lloyd Claff; Bucknell University, F. DeWolfe Miller; University of Buffalo, Sayre P. Maddock; Butler University, Ardin E. Hays,

May Iske; **University of California**, William O. Reinhardt; **University of California (Los Angeles)**, Ida Abramovitch, Ralph L. Beals, Walter A. Foy, T. A. Geissman, Harry Hoiyer, Boris Kirchesky, Theodore Saloutos, William J. J. Smith; **Carleton College**, David Bryan-Jones, Lucile Deen, Ruth F. Eliot, Reginald D. Lang, Winifred Morin, John Phelan, V. E. Pinkham, Kenneth W. Wegner; **Carnegie Institute of Technology**, Oleta A. Benn; **Case School of Applied Science**, George E. Barnes, Earle C. Gregg, Jr., Charles D. Hodgman; **Catholic University of America**, Josephine C. Brown, Dorothy E. Donley-Dowd, Urban H. Fleege, M. J. McKeough, Theodore C. Petersen, Janet F. Walker; **Cedar Crest College**, Frederick C. Strong III, **Centenary College of Louisiana**, W. Clayton Cornish; **University of Cincinnati**, Reginald L. Grooms, Gerald V. Lannholm; **The Citadel**, Lafayette B. Hedge; **The City College (New York)**, Walter E. Nallin, Jerome K. Wilcox; **Coker College**, Elizabeth H. Davidson, Helen Mills, Aileen Moody; **Colorado School of Mines**, W. Doy Neighbors, George W. Salzer; **University of Colorado**, John B. Bruce, Vinton S. Curry, Karl K. Hulley, John S. Meek, Henry B. Moore, David W. O'Day, Charles H. Prien, Rachel Soloveitchik, Joseph E. Stepanek, Alvin H. Voight, Jr., Edwin J. Westermann; **Columbia University**, José Famadas; **Connecticut College**, Whitney R. Cross; **Teachers College of Connecticut**, Raymond W. Phipps; **University of Connecticut**, Louis P. Granath, Robert H. Sproat; **Cornell College**, Ruth A. Pinkerton; **Denison University**, Richard C. Burts, Jr., Margaret Collins, Chosaburo Kato, Juanita M. Kreps, Morton Schoenfeld, Elizabeth B. Stanton, Amy C. Turnell, Paul Waldorf, Thomas A. Welbaum; **University of Denver**, Arthur K. Loomis, Alonzo B. May, Karl A. Schmidt; **DePauw University**, Leah Curnutt; **Drury College**, A. G. Jelinek, Margaret Kidder, Blanche Matthews; **Duke University**, Frances D. Acomb, John S. Curtiss, Frederick R. Darkis, Sigmund Koch; **University of Florida**, Vestus T. Jackson; **Franklin and Marshall College**, Daniel Gibson, Michael A. Lewis; **Furman University**, Reece C. Blackwell, Alton W. Greenlaw, M. Clyde Hughes, Thomas B. Kimbrough, Gerda Preyost, Ethel R. Watters; **George Washington University**, Gerhard Colm, E. William Ligon, Jr., Dorothy J. Morrow; **Georgia State Woman's College**, Katherine F. Gross, Robert H. Talbert; **Georgia Teachers College**, Hester Newton; **University of Georgia**, J. Robert Rinker; **Hahnemann Medical College**, Livingston Chunn, William G. Schmidt; **Hampton Institute**, Frederick D. Inge; **University of Hawaii**, Elizabeth B. Carr, James V. Cunningham, John F. Embree, Alfons L. Korn, Henrietta C. Krantz; **Hofstra College**, Myron H. Luke, Loyal F. Ollmann; **Hood College**, Martha M. Briney, Beulah C. Compton, Beatrice M. Foster, Lillian P. Little, Lucille Palmatier; **Howard College**, William P. Dale II; **Hunter College**, Alona H. Henning, Eugene Janinski, Katherine V. Kreidel, Dora S. Lewis, Donnie G. McCully; **University of Idaho**, Albert E. Whitehead; **University of Idaho (Southern Branch)**, Berne P. Broadbent; **Southern Illinois Normal University**, Mary J. Hantz, Grace E. Kite, Thelma Lynn; **Illinois State Normal University**, Frances M. Alexander; **Eastern Illinois State Teachers College**, Gladys W. Ekeberg; **University of Illinois**, Milo D. Appleman, Oswald Tippo; **Indiana University**, Dotaline E. Allen, George L. Barnett, Carl W.

Birky, Richard Clayton, Charles F. Deiss, Allison Dunham, Edward E. Edwards, Irvin Ehrenpreis, Gerhard Gaiser, Charles F. Hennecke, William E. Koogler, Orvin Larson, Naomi L. Leyhe, L. S. McClung, Lynne L. Merritt, Jr., Robert Milsen, Wallace Miner, Harold E. Moore, Mildred Rice, Merrill Roff, Darrell E. Ross, Walter A. Steigleman, Leon H. Wallace, Leah E. Weidman, Luella A. Williams; **Iowa State College**, Dorothy J. Burton, A. Maurice Hanson, Millard R. Kratochvil, Dale McCay, Alexander M. Mood, Robert J. Taylor, Bernard Vinograde; **Iowa State Teachers College**, Martin L. Grant; **State University of Iowa**, Chester W. Clark, C. Addison Hickman, Seymour A. Pitcher; **Johnson C. Smith University**, Richard A. Carroll; **Juniata College**, Herbert K. Zassenhaus; **Kansas State College**, Carl Tjerandson, Robert A. Walker; **Kansas State Teachers College (Emporia)**, Charles P. Paterson, Theodore Skinner, John W. Tait; **Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg)**, Cecelia Earhart; **University of Kansas City**, John R. Hodges, Alfredo Ortiz-Vargas, Samson Soloveitchik; **Kent State University**, Alfred W. Stewart, Elbert W. Tischendorf; **University of Kentucky**, Jesse De Boer; **Lafayette College**, Stanley L. Chickson, Charles H. Ellard, Robert H. Goldsmith, Henry Herpolsheimer, Alfred A. Kerr, Donald McCluskey, Bernard Marklein, Elliott Schieffelin; **La Sierra College**, Keld J. Reynolds; **Lawrence College**, John Stuart; **Lebanon Valley College**, D. Clark Carmean; **Lincoln University (Missouri)**, Florence R. Brown, Donald A. Edwards, J. Erroll Miller; **Southwestern Louisiana Institute**, George B. Brown, J. Frank Davis; **Northwestern State College of Louisiana**, Jonah W. D. Skiles; **Louisiana State University**, Carl B. Cone, Charles E. Smith; **University of Louisville**, Evelyn Aldrich, Warren Babb, Frances S. Goldsmith, George A. Muench, Donald S. Pearson; **University of Maine**, Lloyd Flewelling, Frederick S. Haydon, G. William Small; **Manhattanville College of the Sacred Heart**, Mercedes de Arango; **University of Maryland**, George H. Cuneo, Constance Hartman, Delight W. Holt, John J. Kelly, Minerva Martin; **Marymount College (Kansas)**, Helena Schmiedeler; **Massachusetts Institute of Technology**, Bernhard Haurwitz; **Mercer University**, Alice R. Selby; **Miami University**, J. Fisher Stanfield; **Michigan State College**, Raymond P. Harris; **University of Michigan**, John Arthos, Francis W. Gravit, Abraham Herman, Clark Hopkins, Byron O. Hughes, Karl F. Lagler, John W. Lederle, Allan D. Maxwell, George R. Moore, Clark F. Norton, Henry V. S. Ogden, James C. O'Neill, Charles H. Peake, Clarence K. Pott, Vincent A. Scanio, Marshall L. Snyder, William C. Steere; **Middlebury College**, H. Ward Bedford, Erie T. Volkert, Bruce V. Weidner; **Mills College**, Howard Brubeck, Audrey K. James, Rosalind A. Keep, Bing-chung Ling, Muriel Stoner; **Minnesota State Teachers College (Duluth)**, Willis B. Caton, Beulah J. Charmley, Francis E. Rothchild; **University of Minnesota**, Signe Holmstrom; **Mississippi Southern College**, Mary Bolinger; **Northeast Missouri Teachers College**, Homer L. Knight; **Northwest Missouri State Teachers College**, Willard Robb; **Southeast Missouri State Teachers College**, Anna V. Burns; **University of Missouri**, Samuel Brody, Elizabeth P. Campuzano, Robert S. Daniel, William F. English, Sara Feder, Herbert B. Gould, Walter A. Hearn, Lois

Knowles, Hoyt H. London, Dennis T. Mayer, Arthur C. Ragsdale, Irma J. Ross, Robert W. Ross, James M. Sanders, Elliott Scherr, Frederick Shane, Willard R. Thurlow; **Montana State University**, Olaf J. Bue, Jules A. Karlin, C. Frank Smith; **Mount Holyoke College**, Richard E. Johnson, Anna Wollmann; **Nebraska State Teachers College (Wayne)**, Clara Heylmun, Mamie McCorkindale, Ruth L. Pearson, Edith M. Sundell, Ida M. Warner; **University of Nebraska**, William J. Arnold, Florence Corbin, Floyd S. Harper, Luvicy M. Hill, Ralph Hull, H. Armin Pagel, Carolyn G. Ruby, Bess Steele; **University of Nevada**, William I. Smyth; **University of New Hampshire**, Irving D. Bartley, Joseph D. Batcheller, Andrew Gyorgy, Helmut M. Haendler, Richard C. Jones; **New Mexico State College**, Donald A. Brown; **New York State Teachers College (Brockport)**, W. Wayne Dedman; **New York State Teachers College (Buffalo)**, Kenneth R. Coghill, Margaret F. Le Clair; **New York State Teachers College (Geneseo)**, Gaile A. Carbaugh; **New York University**, Kenneth S. Davis, Paul D. Kaufman; **Newark College of Engineering**, Oliver J. Sizelove; **University of North Dakota**, Carol M. Humpstone, John A. Page, G. Marvin Shutt; **Northwestern University**, Brunson MacChesney; **University of Notre Dame**, Aaron I. Abell, Robert L. Anthony, Cecil Birder, Jose C. Corona, George F. Driscoll, Harold E. Ellithorn, Eugene Guth, Henry D. Hinton, Rufus Isaacs, Leo F. Kuntz, Karl Menger, Charles J. Mullin, Daniel C. O'Grady, John A. Parchem, Devere T. Plunkett, E. Lawrence Powers, Jr., Ovid M. Ray, Ronald E. Rich, William M. Schuyler, Edmund A. Smith, Bernard Waldman, Rex W. Waymack, Ernest J. Wilhelm; **Ohio University**, Herman W. Humphrey, John A. Luttrell, Jr.; **University of Oklahoma**, Clifford M. Baumback, Forrest F. Blankenship, Norman Boke, Carl B. Cass, John N. Cooper, Maurice R. Denny, Wilfrid J. Dixon, Leonard H. Haug, Elwyn O. Hughes, Dorothy V. Leake, William B. Lemmon, Ellis M. Sims; **Oregon State College**, Walter M. Adrion, Joseph S. Butts, Ronald K. Campbell, Charles L. Clark, Leland G. Cole, Marian Field, Martin F. Johnson, Paul X. Knoll, Miriam Macpherson, Wentworth S. Morris, Ivan Pratt, Jack D. Sather, Allen B. Scott, Louis P. Shepherd, Ruth Tressman, Edna M. Van Horn, Harold R. Vinyard, Josephine A. Wasson, Earle W. Wells, Maud M. Wilson, D. Palmer Young; **University of Oregon**, Daniel L. Adler, George Boughton, Stacey L. Green, Jessie M. Smith; **College of Osteopathic Physicians and Surgeons**, Robert P. Morhardt; **College of Our Lady of the Elms**, Francis J. Claffey, Maurice A. McLaughlin, Jr., Dwight F. Mowery, Jr.; **Pennsylvania College for Women**, Mildred T. Evanson, Hélène R. Gill, C. Hess Haagen, Leslie D. McGraw, Winifred E. Mantell, Samuel Sloan; **Pennsylvania State College**, John W. Breneman, Alphonse A. Brielmaier, J. D. Clendenin, H. M. Davis, Kalman J. DeJuhasz, Bert H. Garcia, Jr., Robert J. Grace, Samuel W. Harding, Samuel K. Hoffman, John R. Low, Jr., Emmett F. O'Neil, Willis Pratt, Harold J. Read, Richard D. Snouffer, Warren G. C. Thompson; **Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Indiana)**, Irving Cheyette, Orval Kipp; **Pennsylvania State Teachers College (West Chester)**, Frances Hobbs; **University of Pennsylvania**, Alexander H. Frey, William Seifriz; **Phoenix Junior College**, Laura E. Herron, Amos H. Hoff, Helen E. Hubbard

Jeanette Littlejohn, Marshall W. Monroe, Clyde Myers, James I. Stewart, Earle L. Stone; **University of Pittsburgh**, Calvin Golumbic, John W. Nystrom, Carl Olson, Agnes Starrett; **Prairie View University**, George W. Reeves; **The Principia**, Dorothy Brandt; **University of Puerto Rico**, Hilda Aboy Busó, Félix L. Alegría, Santos P. Amadeo, Augusto Bird, Reece B. Bothwell, Providencia Cintrón, Lidio Cruz-Monclova, Abigail Díaz, Luis M. Díaz, Martin M. Dubner, Arturo A. Estrella, María I. Flores, Carlos R. García-Benítez, Adela Gerardino, Labor Gómez, Maxine W. Gordon, Pura A. de Hernández, Richard Huzarski, Richard W. Iskraut, Sonja Karsen, Roman Kenk, Valentine Krikorian, José M. Laracuenta, Vicente Lloréns, Oscar Loubriel, D. Clay McDowell, Alfredo Matilla-Jimeno, Elwyn Mauck, Félix Mejías, Ramón Mellado, José A. Moreno, Alfredo Muñiz, Pedro Muñoz-Amato, Miguel Nieves-Aponte, Ana M. O'Neill, Luis Ortega, Angel G. Quintero, Marcos A. Ramírez, Lewis C. Richardson, Carmen Rivera de Alvarado, Modesto Rivera Rivera, Manuel Rodríguez-Ramos, Domingo Rosado, Cesáreo Rosa-Nieves, María T. Sagardia, Rosario Salgado Vda. de Llanceza, Arturo F. Santana, Leopoldo Santiago-Lavandero, Elmer J. Schacht, Raúl Serrano-Geyls, Manuel Siaca-Rivera, Morris Siegel, Joseph C. Thomas, Robert A. Thornton, Felicio M. Torregrosa; **Purdue University**, Sol Boyk, Muzaffer Erseleuk, Marbury B. Ogle, Esther Schlundt; **Queens College (New York)**, John S. Diekhoff; **Queens College (North Carolina)**, Mildred M. McEwen; **Rhode Island State College**, Violet B. Higbee, Kenneth L. Knickerbocker, Lee C. McCauley, Frank S. Schlenker, Malcolm M. Williams; **Rollins College**, K. Elizabeth Cameron; **Russell Sage College**, Clara Carrison, Constance Clough, Dorothy Dennison, Mary F. Dunstan, Vivian Fox, Margaret Grossenbacher, Gertrude Heidenthal, Mary R. Hosier, Doris P. Merrill, Lucinda Moles, Raoul A. Pelmont, Egon Plager, Helene Reschovsky, Dorothy Sammis, Grace Van Dervoort; **Rutgers University**, William C. Bagley, Jr., Paul G. Darling, Douglas G. Gemeroy, Phyllis W. Glass, Albert O. Hayes, Werner Hollmann, James H. Leathem, Simon Lopata, Neil A. McDonald, Duncan McKenzie, Herbert J. Metzger, Anna R. Nelson, Leslie A. Marchand, Leonardo Santamarina, Mary H. Scanlan, Alice Schlimbach, Robert D. Seeley, Henry L. Van Mater, Vittorio Versè, Albert S. Wilkerson; **St. Lawrence University**, Charles W. Carlston, Donald F. Warner, Theodore C. Weiler; **St. Olaf College**, Kenneth O. Bjork; **Sam Houston State Teachers College**, Joe E. Kirk; **San Jose State College**, Winifred J. Ferris, Gladys M. Nevenzel, Oma Strain; **Colleges of the Seneca**, Paul J. Alexander, Harold Bligh, James W. Bunting; **Shepherd College**, Catherine A. Burns, Roger N. LeFevre, Florence Shaw; **Smith College**, Mary A. Wagner; **Southern Methodist University**, Cyrus L. Lundell; **Stanford University**, Harlen M. Adams, Charles E. Clifton, Marie M. Fenner, Boynton M. Green, William W. Hansen, Ronald Hilton, Sidney Raffel, Albert C. Schaeffer, Sam D. Thurman, Jr., James B. Wells; **Swarthmore College**, Vera V. French, Howard M. Jenkins, David Krech, Bryce Wood; **Sweet Briar College**, Jane C. Belcher; **Syracuse University**, K. Roald Bergethon, Paul Goodwin, Tania Leshinsky, Kathryn N. deLima, Robert J. Rayback; **Temple University**,

Karl-Heinz Planitz; **Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College**, Earl L. Sasser; **Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas**, William F. Adams, Elmer R. Alexander, Herbert E. Hampton, Wilbur M. Jackson, Walter S. Manning, B. F. K. Mullins, James G. Potter, Norman F. Rode, I. Walker Rupel, Arthur Schipper, Paul J. Talley, Richard D. Turk, Foy E. Walling; **Texas State College for Women**, Ann B. Carroll, Margaret Kennard; **Texas Technological College**, Virginia Bowman, T. Earle Hamilton, Estus C. Polk, Arlo I. Smith; **Tufts College**, Marjorie Burditt, Lewis S. Combes, Earle F. Littleton, Elliott K. Shapira, Cecelia Van Auker; **Tulane University**, Priscilla J. Beaupré, Lucy S. Bynum, Dorothy Daspit, Frank B. Evans III, Maynard Klein, Bernard Lemann, Gaither McConnell, A. Rebecca Oliver, Edith Perlman, Robert G. Scott, William H. Stevens, John W. Watson, Jr., Bernice M. Wenzel; **Union College (New York)**, Cyril F. Kilb, Charles T. Male, Jr.; **Ursinus College**, Eugenie K. Bigelow, J. Douglas Davis, James Minnich; **Utah State Agricultural College**, Dwight W. Bensend, William S. Boyle, Carlton F. Culmsee, Datus M. Hammond, Bertha F. Johnson, William H. Manning, Edward W. Payne, Don W. Pittman, Frederick Preator, Ray B. West, Jr.; **University of Utah**, Albert B. Carson; **University of Vermont**, Clarence J. Douglas, Robert E. Long, Andrew E. Nuquist; **Virginia Polytechnic Institute**, William L. Gibson, Jr., George W. Tidd; **Virginia State Teachers College (Farmville)**, Jessie A. Patterson; **University of Virginia**, James W. Cole, Bernard Mayo; **University of Virginia (Mary Washington College)**, Beverly T. Moss; **Washburn University**, Donald H. Webb; **Central Washington College of Education**, Alfred T. Allen, Evelyn Erickson, Clara Freeman, Mary G. Greene, Norman Howell, Gladys M. Hunter, Karla Mogensen, Margaret S. Mount, Reino Randall, Ethel Reiman; **Eastern Washington College of Education**, Evelyn Goodsell, Eveus Newland; **Western Washington College of Education**, Thomas K. Goltry, Irwin A. Hammer; **State College of Washington**, Lillian S. Bentley, Mark T. Buchanan, Tony J. Cunha, George H. Foster, Wendell E. Ham, Walter W. Hinz, William H. Johnson, Ivan Putman, Jr., Evelyn E. Stout, Selma Streit, Jane Wilson; **University of Washington**, Henry D. Aiken, Helen C. Anderson, A. Bailey, Perry Baisler, Roland E. Belshaw, Merritt E. Benson, Z. William Birnbaum, Frederick E. Bolton, Robert E. Brown, Loren Carlson, James Carrell, Ch'eng-K'un Cheng, Hiram M. Chittenden, Lemuel B. Cooper, Donald Cornu, Richard W. Crain, Clyde M. Cramlet, Joseph Daniels, Jean F. David, Lauren R. Donaldson, Donald W. Emery, Harold P. Everest, Virginia Felton, Katharine Fox, Alletta M. Gillette, Elizabeth A. Groves, Muriel L. Guberlet, Erna Gunther, Alice H. Hayden, Bernard S. Henry, Thomas G. Hermans, Katherine Hoffman, Mary G. Hutchinson, Amoretta Jones, Edward Kimmel, J. Maurice Kingston, Paul H. Kocher, Roy E. Lindblom, Laura E. McAdams, Joseph L. McCarthy, Lester L. McCrery, Dorothy G. MacLean, Linden A. Mander, Alfred L. Miller, Shōtaro F. Miyamoto, Erling J. Ordal, Philip S. Padelford, Angelo M. Pellegrini, Henry A. Person, Horace G. Rahskopf, Dixy L. Ray, James C. H. Robertson, Gilbert S. Schaller, Clarence Schrag, D. W. Sherwood, Gordon R. Shuck,

George S. Smith, Edward L. Turner, Mabel Turner, Sybren R. Tymstra, Edwin A. Uehling, Donald H. Webster, Paul A. Wright; **Wellesley College**, Virginia L. Conant, Elizabeth Eiselen, Charlotte E. Goodfellow, Gertrud B. Greig, Dorothy Heyworth, Lucy W. Killough, Louise Kingsley, Hedwig Kohn, Elsa T. Liefeld, Helena A. Miller, Barbara Salditt, Henry F. Schwarz, Alice R. Stewart, Barbara G. Trask, Louise P. Wilson; **Wells College**, Thomas B. Irving, Luella Kramer; **West Virginia University**, Kathleen McGillicuddy, Jeanne Paris, Ralph M. White; **Western College**, Annette M. McCormick, Louise McKeon, Constance L. Raymaker, Bessie P. Sloan, William W. Sloan; **Western Reserve University**, Stanley Butler, William F. Conway, Alfred H. Free, Warren H. Gardner, Warren Guthrie, Dorothy C. Hockey, Kathryn B. King, Elizabeth P. Lam, Helen W. Smith; **Wheaton College (Illinois)**, Frank O. Green, Merrill C. Tenney; **Whitman College**, M. Duane Bown; **University of Wichita**, J. R. Ashton, Anthony L. Chiuminatto, Adrian Pouliot, Henry K. Sears, Katharine L. Van Keuren, Horace H. Washburn, Arthur A. Wichmann; **Wilberforce University**, Clarence H. Mills, Norwood R. Shields; **College of William and Mary**, H. Malcolm Owen, Caroline B. Sinclair, Lindley J. Stiles; **Wilson College**, Alice S. Brandenburg, Marie T. Copp, Anna M. McDowell, Alice E. A. Priestley; **Winston-Salem Teachers College**, J. Wellfred Holmes; **Winthrop College**, Charles B. Anderson, Caleb A. Haskew, Griffith F. Pugh, Vera V. Raleigh, Elizabeth A. Rogers; **University of Wisconsin**, Charles F. Edson; **University of Wyoming**, Harold F. Allen; **Xavier University**, Frances Douglass.

Transfers from Junior to Active

Case School of Applied Science, Alfred R. Pray; **Christian College**, Dorothy M. S. Griffin; **University of Michigan**, F. Dean McClusky; **University of Oregon**, Jack R. Parsons; **United States Naval Academy**, Hugh D. Brunk.

Junior

Baylor University, Sue Moore; **Southern Illinois Normal University**, Alice P. Rector; **Indiana University**, Alva Rice, Annette P. Seldon; **Mount Holyoke College**, Frieda S. Trainor; **University of Notre Dame**, John J. Glanvill; **Ohio State University**, Carl H. McFadden; **University of Puerto Rico**, Vinico R. Colón; **Western Reserve University**, Priscilla Tyler; **University of Wichita**, Wayne Simmonds; **University of Wisconsin**, Isabel M. Fernández; **Yale University**, William K. Coblenz; **Not in Accredited Institutional Connection**, Louis Filler (Ph.D., Columbia University), Washington, D. C.; C. L. Pell (M.A., George Peabody College for Teachers), Jackson, Tennessee.

Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

To assist in the placement of college and university teachers the American Association of University Professors publishes notices of academic vacancies and of teachers available. It is optional with appointing officers and teachers to publish names and addresses or to use key numbers.

Letters in reference to "Vacancies Reported" and letters in reference to "Teachers Available" should be sent to the Association's central office for forwarding to the persons concerned. Address in care of the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1155 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Vacancies Reported

Animal Biology: Teacher, New England junior college. M.A. required, Ph.D. preferred, 3 to 5 years' successful teaching experience. Salary, \$3500-\$5000. V 1161

Commercial Law, Insurance, Real Estate: Openings for the fall semester, September, 1946, university in southwest. Probable salary, \$3000-\$3600 for 9 months. V 1162

Economics and Commerce: Instructors and assistant professors in well-accredited east-south-central municipal university. Salary range, \$2800-\$3600; summer and other extras, \$400-\$1000. M.A. or M.B.A. minimum. September, 1946. V 1163

English: Teacher, New England junior college. M.A. required, Ph.D. preferred, 3 to 5 years' successful teaching experience. Salary, \$3500-\$5000. V 1164

Geography: Position open for instructor in college in southwest. Salary \$2000-\$2200, depending upon qualifications. V 1165

Management: Opening for fall semester, 1946. University in southwest. Salary, \$3000-\$3500 for 9 months with possibility of employment during the summer. V 1166

Mathematics, Applied Mechanics, Engineering Drawing, and Mechanical Engineering: Positions open for instructors, assistant professors, and associate professors at a leading technical institution offering work up to and including the doctorate. Both M.A.'s and Ph.D.'s are needed for the fall term. V 1167

Pharmacology and Pharmacognosy: Professors, state institution, southwest. Minimum requirements, B.S. in pharmacy, M.S. optional field. Salary dependent upon qualifications. Permanent position in a new school. Position offers good future. V 1168

Speech and Dramatics: Teacher, New England junior college. M.A. required, Ph.D. preferred, 3 to 5 years' successful teaching experience. Salary, \$3500-\$5000. V 1169

New York State temporary colleges for veterans at Sampson and Plattsburg, N. Y., will need a large number of teachers for freshman liberal arts subjects. Appointments temporary, probably for three years. Applications should be directed to Dr. John S. Allen, Director, Division of Higher Education, The University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.

Teachers Available

- Art: Woman, 34. M.A. degree, teaching experience and college personnel work, prefers costume design, interior decoration, and advertising, but is also qualified in oil painting, design, and drawing. Desires to begin new position in September, 1946. A 2465
- Chemistry: Man, 34, married. Ph.D. Physical-organic chemist, 8 years' teaching experience, 20 months' N.D.R.C. Publications including book. Phi Lambda Upsilon and Sigma Xi. Experienced in theoretical and experimental technics. Well trained mathematics. Desires position in accredited university or technical school which fosters research and where there is an opportunity to teach advanced courses. A 2466
- Chemistry: Man. Ph.D. from outstanding institution, summer, 1946. 3 years' teaching (general and organic). Desires university or college position in metropolitan area. A 2467
- Dean of Instruction: Man, 40. Ph.D. 15 years' successful teaching experience in several departments, including 2 years of administrative and supervisory responsibility; at present chairman of an academic department in a state teachers college. Both scientific and humanistic training and some business experience. Interested in putting a varied experience to work in coordinating instruction, improving in service education, introducing faculty personnel work, etc. Publications, lecture experience, academic and extra-academic contacts. A 2468
- Economics: Man, 44. Veteran, single, Ph.D. Experienced teacher (principles, problems, consumer economics, wage and price stabilization, foreign trade). Travel here and abroad. Since 1943 with U. S. war agencies in Washington, D. C.; interested in teaching. A 2469
- Economics: Man, single. Ph.D. Experience includes mortgage research for banks; economist in 3 federal agencies; taught at large universities and smaller college, now in leading southern university. Publications; further research in progress. Excellent references. Has taught money and banking, finance (corporation, public, international, mortgage), labor, principles and theory, marketing, transportation, business organization. Associate professor now and in previous position. Wants full professorship in best liberal arts college or associate professorship in good university. Minimum: \$4000 for 8 or 9 months. Available September, 1946. A 2470
- Economics: Man, 32, Ph.D. Columbia. On temporary duty as chief industrial specialist with the United States Forces in Austria, seeks permanent teaching post with high calibre institution, preferably eastern or midwestern. 2 years' teaching experience, 5 years' high level government work in economics. Foreign travel, many publications. Wife could teach marketing, merchandising, advertising; 6 years' experience as sales manager large corporation, 2 years' teaching. Both available September 15, 1946. Fair rank and salary expected. A 2471
- Economics (specializing in Personnel and Labor Problems): Extension college teaching and government experience. M.A. Columbia. Completing Ph.D. dissertation. A 2472
- Education: Woman, single. 9 years' experience in college teaching, associate professor in psychology and teacher training. Experience in public school administration and supervision, and work in child study laboratory. Completed course work for doctorate. A 2473
- Education: Man 42, married, 2 daughters. Ed.D. state university. Major—educational administration; minors—curriculum and instruction, and educational psychology. 20 years' teaching experience. 15 years' administration in public schools and 5 years' college teaching. Would consider administrative duties. Available for academic year 1946-47. A 2509

Education: Man, 42, married, 3 children. Ph.D. 11 years' college experience in teacher training and education, both graduate and undergraduate. Educational administration and curriculum major interests. Holding full professorship. Present salary over \$4000. Excellent health, but must seek dry climate for sake of wife's health. Will invite letters of inquiry to present associates and all present superior officers. Not interested in teaching psychology. Numerous publications. Member Kappa Delta Pi, Phi Delta Kappa. Available late summer or fall, 1946. A 2474

Education, Spanish: Man, 52, married, 2 daughters. Ph.D., education; M.A., Spanish. Terminating 3-year government appointment studying education systems in Latin America. Experience in elementary, high school, college, and university; 7 years' college Spanish, 13 years as head of department of education and psychology. Publications: National System of Education in Mexico, J.H.U. Press, 1931; U. S. Office of Education bulletins on each of 6 L. A. countries; articles. Travel: Spain, France, Italy, Puerto Rico (6 years), and South and Central America (1 year). Infantry officer, World War I. Phi Beta Kappa, etc. Desires position in education (comparative, history, psychology, secondary) or Spanish (advanced composition, conversation, literature). Salary expectancy: \$4000 minimum. Available September, 1946. A 2475

Engineering (Electrical and Metallurgical): Man, 48, Protestant. 15 years' teaching, 12 years in industry. Present head of electrical engineering department and metallurgical engineering department in midwest university. Interested in an equivalent assignment in education or industry in eastern U. S. A. and Canada. A 2476

Engineering and Architecture: Man, 30. B.S. (Architecture). 5 years of practical experience previous to 4 years as head of engineering department in a junior college. Taught surveying, curves and earthworks, descriptive geometry, statics, dynamics, engineering drawing, architectural drafting, and engineering problems. Investigating possibilities because of great success at teaching. A 2477

English: Man, 35, married. Ph.D., Phi Beta Kappa, 7 years' teaching experience and becoming a productive scholar. Seeks move from leading college to good university. A 2478

English. Woman. 7 years' university and 1 year eastern college instructing in sophomore composition, survey course in English and American literature. Ph.D. Publications. Now completing biography in American literature. MLA. AAUW. A 2479

English and/or General Humanities, particularly Western Literature, Art and Civilization: Special experience in coordinating various departments of the curriculum. Teaching and/or administration. Vassar, Wellesley, Harvard background. M.A., Ph.D., Phi Beta Kappa. European and American Fellowships and travel. Wide and successful college and university teaching and administrative experience. Publications. Research. Lectures. Excellent references. Location desired: New York City or suburbs. A 2510

Fine Arts (Art History, Art Appreciation, Art Theory and Practice): Man, 37, married, 1 child. Ph.D. 4 years' high school teaching; 7 years' college teaching. 3 years' private industry, art director. Writer and lecturer in art appreciation. Now associate professor and art lecturer in general college of large university. Desires position in eastern or midwestern college or university combining general college work in art appreciation and specialized work in art history and aesthetics. Available June or September, 1946. A 2480

French: Man, 38, veteran, married, children. Several degrees and Doctorate (University of Paris). On leave from eastern college; associated with Biarritz American University and other Information and Education Division projects; publications; seeks position offering tenure, promotion scale. Available June, 1946. A 2481

- French, Spanish: Man, 41, married. M.A. 2 years of foreign study at the universities of Bordeaux and Grenoble; extensive foreign travel; 17 years' successful college teaching in coeducational institution; excellent references; assistant professor; desires to relocate in college or university in northeast. A 2482
- French, Spanish: Woman, Ph.D., French university, B.A., M.A., leading American university. 4 years' residence in France, extensive travel; 14 years' experience college teaching. Desires permanent position. Available September, 1946. A 2483
- German: Instructor—Registrar. 6 years' teaching experience, 2 years' college; 1 year college registrar work. References. A 2484
- German, Greek, Latin: Woman, Ph.D. Germany. 12 years' American college teaching experience, extensive travel, publications in contemporary German literature, excellent references, available fall 1947 or earlier. Desires change, preferably permanent position. A 2485
- German Language and Literature: Man, 44, single, veteran. Ph.D. 14 years' teaching experience in American colleges and universities; publications. At present in U. S. Civil Service, wishes to resume teaching. A 2486
- History: Man, 37, A.B., A.M., Ph.D., University of Chicago. Phi Beta Kappa. 7 years' teaching experience in every field of history. Desires position emphasizing or concerned exclusively with European history. Leading middle western liberal arts colleges and state universities preferred. Available September, 1946. A 2487
- History: Man, 38, married. Expect Ph.D. from Ohio State University during summer, 1946. 4 years' teaching introductory European history courses as assistant at Ohio State. Emphasis in imperialism, diplomacy, and Renaissance and Reformation. Prefer east or midwest location. A 2508
- Languages (Spanish, French, German, Italian): Man, married, 1 child, Ph.D. Teaching experience in 3 major universities. Travel. Numerous publications. Holds responsible position but desires change. A 2488
- Mathematics: Man, 42, B.S., M.A. 20 years' teaching experience, 18 in a northern state university. Present rank, associate professor. Some administrative experience. Desires change in position, preferably in one of the southern universities. A 2489
- Mathematics: Man, 40, married, 1 child, A.M. Wisconsin. 19 years' teaching experience. Available July, 1946. A 2490
- Modern Languages: Woman, Ph.D. French and Spanish. 2 research fellowships. Now head of department in small college. Wishes to move to institution in or near city. Will take headship of department in small institution or assistant or associate professorship in larger institution. Available, September, 1947. A 2491
- Modern Languages, Comparative Linguistics and Literature: Woman, Ph.D., studied in European and American universities, including recent visiting scholarships at Yale and Columbia. 13 years' college teaching experience as professor of German, published, travelled. Present position, specialized research in government agency. Would be interested in suitable teaching position. A 2507
- Music and Music Education: Man, 36, married, 1 child. B.M., B.A., completing M.A. in summer, 1946. Desire to continue work during summers toward Ed.D. Experience: 11 years' teaching, supervision, and department administration in public and private schools, college and large state university; also extensive experience in professional groups and community music (war work in this area). Prefer position as music department chairman, director of choral music and teacher of classes in music education. Excellent references. Available September, 1946. A 2492

Philosophy, Classical Languages or Humanities: Man, 41, married. Ph.D. College and university teaching experience. Completing 3 years' Naval service of educational and personnel administration, emphasis on guidance and veterans' problems. Available for teaching and administrative position in September.

A 2493

Physical Education: Woman. B.S., working toward M.S. 5 years' college and university teaching experience. Have taught teachers training courses as well as sports. Eastern location preferred.

A 2494

Physics: Man, married, 3 children. Ph.D. 23 years' teaching experience teaching physics, astronomy, aeronautics, electronics, and mathematics. Headed department in church college, in women's college, and in teachers' college. Desires change to position in engineering college or in church college with good endowment, preferably in far west. Listed in American Men of Science, Who's Who in American Education, Who's Who in American Literature, and Who's Who in American Engineering. Member: Sigma Pi Sigma, Sigma Xi, Mason, Presbyterian, also numerous professional societies. Author of over 30 papers.

A 2495

Physics: Man, 48, Ph.D. 23 years' experience in university teaching, general physics, electrodynamics, magnetism. Publications. Teaching with research.

A 2496

Physics: Man, 33, married. English B.Sc., Ph.D. 4 years' experience teaching college physics, 3 years' experience in academic and industrial research. Recently honorably discharged after 6½ years' service. Able writer, editor and administrator. Experience as soccer player and coach. Available August 1.

A 2511

Political Science, Anthropology, Biology: Woman. Studies equivalent to Ph.D. in foreign university, with postgraduate work in education in American universities. 2 fellowships (languages; research and literature). Available in September, 1946 or sooner.

A 2497

Political Science: Man, 46, married. Ph.D. 1935 in field of international law and relations. Former holder of teacher's fellowship in international law awarded by Carnegie Endowment; certificate, Institut Universitaire de Hautes Etudes Internationales, Geneva; 13 years' university teaching; extensive travel including Far East; Member International Secretariat U.N.C.I.O., San Francisco. Federal Government since 1942; on leave Department of State. Consider administrative post or teaching September, 1946. Prefer New England or New York.

A 2498

Political Science: Man, 46, married, 1 child. LL.M. Harvard. 14 years' teaching experience at eastern college. Textbook in American Political Parties. Preference for that subject, American government, business law, constitutional law, international law, similar subjects. Law review articles. 5 years' practice leading firms.

A 2499

Psychology: Man, Ph.D. Northwestern. 6 years' teaching experience. Subjects: general, experimental, or physiological psychology.

A 2500

Psychology: Man, single. Ph.D. (Yale), Fellow A.A.A.S. Experienced college and university professor, counsellor and administrator. Presently engaged as lecturer and public relations consultant. Will return to college or university of high rank as professor or part-time lecturer.

A 2501

Romance Languages: French, Spanish, Italian; man, married, M.A. Additional graduate work. Extensive travel. 17 years' teaching experience; now employed.

A 2502

Russian, German: Woman, university graduate, formerly with outstanding American universities, desires university or college teaching position.

A 2503

Sociology or Research: Man, 44, married. Ph.D. Columbia. Experience: 17 years' college teaching; 2 years' research; 2 years' public health. Publications. Special fields: family, social research, public health, minority groups. Now holding teaching and research position. Desires associate or full professorship or responsible research or agency position. Available on reasonable notice.

A 2504

Spanish, French: Man, Spanish by birth, of Spanish American upbringing and background, married to American wife, 1 child. Master of Arts, graduate study in several American universities. 29 years' college teaching experience, including summer school and extension teaching. Desires permanent position, at a salary commensurate with long and highly successful college teaching experience. Excellent references.

A 2505

Speech: Man, 45, married. M.A. English Literature, Ph.D. Speech. 16 years' experience in large state university. Special work in organizing new courses in conversational and panel discussion speech, and in radio, speech, and drama. Directed organization and construction of departmental radio workshop. Experience in serving on departmental, college, and university committees. At present assistant professor. Publications including 2 books. Member N.A.T.S., English Speaking Union, and Tau Kappa Alpha. Prefer to locate in Florida or southern California but will consider offers from other sections carrying increases in rank and salary, not less than \$4800.

A 2506

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